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EDITORIAL

"One million. Two million. Five million!" These numbers do not emanate from Andrew H. Brown, but from the Handbook for the American Education Week published by the National Education Association with the authorization of the United States Office of Education. The data are approximate and apply to the enrollments of American high schools in 1910, 1920, and 1930, respectively. The diagram is entitled "The Faith of Youth in Education."

However misleading the label, the sociological, psychological, and philosophical implications of the crude and bold facts admit of no intelligent compromise with regressive elders who pine for "more iron in education" or with intellectual snobs who are sure that American schools are wrong because they do not conform to the traditions of the *Gymnasium* and the *lycée*. The high school has grown, is growing, and will grow because of mechanization of industry with its inevitable technological unemployment and its State labor and compulsory schooling laws.

Great changes have been taking place for the last two decades. These changes are inevitable responses to community pressures and demands and to the expanding range of characteristics not only among the four million students who constitute the four hundred per cent increase of high-school enrollments, but also among the social, economic, and intellectual classes which composed the million of 1910, and the two hundred thousand of 1890.

Professor Simon Patten, in his *New Basis of Civilization* (Chapter I) points out that a "pleasure economy" has largely replaced a "pain economy" which through all the ages our ancestors have been forced to accept. This pleasure economy is the inevitable outcome of the industrial revolution which has made universal abundance potential and to a degree actually realized even in these days of depression.

Nevertheless, the very existence of the depression, with the dissemination of fear and uncertainty among taxpayers, school administrators, teachers, and pupils, empha-

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sizes for all intellectually alert people a need for a far more intelligent and general coöperation among individuals and groups, small and great, if the machine age is not to become a juggernaut or a Frankenstein's monster.

The American high school—the institution established to prepare youths “of the commercial and mechanical classes for active living”—reflects the change from a “pain economy” to a “pleasure economy” which characterizes the world of which it is a part. But it lags in the process. Its marks, failures, shames, ineligibility rules, detentions, suspensions, and other punishments—chiefly connected with its obsolete curriculum—are vestiges of the ancient discredited and repressive social system. Cloistered academicians, with vested interests in a world of limbo, bewail the “lowering of standards” which the loss of potency of formal inanities and assinities presage.

The high school of today which willy-nilly includes the youth of today, already the inheritor of a “pleasure economy,” is inevitably committed to a policy of general coöperation of pupils and teachers and administrators and parents. *Else it must fail.*

And the compulsion which has forced administrators and faculties to promote and experiment with various expressions of coöperation in promoting a positive community welfare in harmony with a “pleasure economy” is the undeniable and unavoidable source of the problems which must be faced.

To the degree that scientific research is concerned with the sociological and psychological factors involved in the coöperations, competitions, and conflicts which control or affect the school's problems, it is making a very great and positive contribution to the struggling and somewhat bewildered administrator and faculty. Too frequently, the assumptions of the psychological and sociological researchers are based on the old pain economy and the inevitability of the subject “curriculum” of verbalisms and symbols which neither teachers nor pupils understand or question. And so, the contributions of most “educational research” are zero.

Educational philosophy has been more helpful. Dewey and his disciples and doubtless some who take exception to his assumptions or his logic have interpreted for the practical schoolman something of the forces that control him and his school. But they have stopped with generalizations; their criteria are sound, perhaps, but in their applications they constantly talk and think about a “curriculum” that no longer exists as such. It remains as a formal rigmarole of requirements, designating the pain one must endure if he is to remain in school where he *may* find a *true* curriculum—ironically termed the “extracurriculum”!

The first month of the school year has past; the school has struck its stride; classes have completed the inevitable reviews and tentative essays into new subject matter; pupils have sized up their teachers while the latter have been measuring the former's

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proficiencies and deficiencies. The principal's pet innovations, already launched or at least proposed and outlined, are under close surveillance of teachers, pupils, and interested parents, and the superintendent and perhaps members of the board of education are reserving judgment. They desire to encourage innovations but they dread the repercussions of unsuccessful ones.

It requires steadfast determination and stubborn resolve if the principal does not hesitate and perhaps postpone the launching of the innovation indefinitely. But one may assume that the readers of this journal are not so lacking in the spirit of adventure as to avoid the issues that must be faced if educational problems are to be solved.

It is important, however, to state as emphatically as possible that the realization of constructive educational policies and programs depends most on bravery and resourcefulness. A steering philosophy is of course important. Doubtless minor researches may be helpful too. Nevertheless, the world is full of philosophers and research enthusiasts to whom the complex problems and needs of school and community seem to present opportunities for discussion; but as Mark Twain remarked of the weather, everybody discusses it but nobody does anything about it. Peculiarly irritating in this connection are those philosophers and researchers who stand aside from the hurly-burly of active life and evaluate and judge the outcomes of experiments and projects into which the life energies of earnest *doers* have been generously poured. Such godlike rôles are safe and satisfying to the egotism of spiritually lazy

men—and unfortunately they seem often to bring a hasty and very cheaply earned recognition and the title of "expert." Hence, the research racket—safe and profitable, but socially vicious!

The October number of the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE does not contain academic discussions of problems. Its articles drive directly at proposed or actually attempted solutions of problems that every practical and progressive secondary-school administrator and teacher recognizes to be of *real* and *immediate* importance. Whether proposals or explanations of practices, the authors of the articles recognize that the procedures they sponsor are mere hypotheses which are now being or should be tested by application and practice.

The writer of the editorial would hesitate to subscribe to the proposals of Dr. Allen or to the practices explained by Mr. Caldwell, for example. Such disagreement as there might be is of no importance, however. The writer would certainly advocate the development of such hypotheses and their application to practices.

Similar agreement with the spirit of adventure, the welcoming of innovations, and the eagerness that underlies initiative and self-reliance explain the welcome given to all of the articles. Truth is emergent. Let us bravely try out those hypotheses that seem most hopeful to each one of us, then modify our hypotheses and try again and again. Slowly we will discover truth in living adventure; for it is

Thus at the flaming forge of life
Our fortunes must be wrought.

P.W.L.C.

CAVILING AT COMPLACENCY

THOMAS H. BRIGGS

EDITOR'S NOTE: Dr. Briggs, of Teachers College, Columbia University, maintains that we, as a nation, are most complacent concerning education. The editors of the CLEARING HOUSE believe that this article by Dr. Briggs is one of the most searching of the many appraisals of modern education that have appeared in print.

F.E.L.

We are in the midst of exploitation and chaos due to a planless system.—SHERWOOD EDDY

A mechanical culture, such as ours, has no . . . economic stability if allowed to drift with the winds of free competition and the unlimited pursuit of private profit.—STUART CHASE

Complacency may be a philosophic virtue, but there are times when it endangers the individual and menaces society. This is one of such times. That as a nation we have been complacent—and concerning many important things still are—cannot be denied. The vast natural resources of the nation, now almost completely exploited, the geographic isolation which protected us from the fierce competition and intrigues of less happy peoples, the long period of peace in which with widely separated interruptions economic prosperity gradually came to bring high standards of physical life, inventions as numerous as they are marvelously ingenious accelerating production and making possible comforts and leisure previously unknown in the world, and faith that developed into a fetish for the undefined terms of "democracy" and "education"—all these things have made us well satisfied with ourselves.

But the comfort of complacency is today suffering rude shocks. Our era of "splendid isolation" is ended. Beginning with the *opéra bouffe* of the Spanish War in 1898 we were drawn into entanglements from which George Washington thought we could be forever free; the Great War made us a world power, although we are reluctantly and tardily accepting the consequent responsibilities. The needs and demands of foreign peoples, remote in distance but now, thanks to our developed science, intimate in their

contacts, disturb us and will increasingly disturb us in the future. And the very success of our inventiveness, organization, and industry has brought a surplus of production that has thrown the entire machinery of our civilization out of gear. Actuated by the habits of complacency we have waited hopefully for some magic that would restore the wonderful years in which every man had work and comforts, often bought on "deferred payments"—and complacency. With childlike faith we expected the good times to continue forever. Still with childlike faith we refuse to face the fact that we cannot consume and the rest of the world cannot buy the vast production which our unplanned industrial organizations are capable of putting on the market.

We should face the truth that in material production we have been too successful. With normal occupation and industry we can produce far more food, clothing, and other necessities than we can consume or can sell. Foreign markets for a long time to come, if not permanently, cannot take our surplus, for it is impossible for them to pay for it. The only possibilities of payment are: first, by raw materials which they do not have or cannot spare and which, for the most part, we do not need; and, second, by labor which we preclude by a high tariff. The conclusion is perfectly clear: we must ultimately have a controlling plan to produce just what we need with such surplus as can be exchanged for such raw materials as we want. Such a plan, supported by the force of legislation until such time as public sentiment can be intelligently influenced to sustain it, will put all men to work, but for

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fewer hours than we are accustomed to expect.

What will they do with their leisure? What *should* men do with leisure? How can they spend it with pleasure and profit to themselves, without harm to others, and with results that make for a happy and harmonious society? This is only one, but an inevitable and highly important one, of the many challenges that the new order will bring. For educators it is paramount, since on education will fall the responsibility of training men and women for leisure. In our professional literature this has for some years been listed as one of the cardinal objectives of secondary education, but so far we have not taken the obligation with great seriousness. Like dilettanti we have played with the idea. We have taught the ancient drama but neglected the modern movie; we have analyzed a restricted literature that few wished later voluntarily to read for their own enjoyment or cultural profit, and ignored that which they do read; we have encouraged mass athletic games which cannot be played individually or in small informal groups, especially after maturity stiffens the muscles and hardens the arteries. Some of us have learned other types of games, other means of relaxation, amusement, or cultural growth; but complacent in the traditions of the curriculum we have not systematically helped youth to share our pleasures. The new economic order will force us to define and seek our verbal objectives, which were formulated by the perspicacious, and to develop serious plans for an increasing need.

As a nation we are most complacent concerning education. After the early struggles to wrest a living from the new continent showed success we were receptive of the evangelical urgings towards education. Towards the end of the nineteenth century faith developed into a fetish, a blind, unreasoning belief that higher schools, whatever they taught and how, are essential for

all. The story of their multiplication is too familiar to need repetition. Like a flame the enthusiasm ran from one end of the country to the other. In the cities magnificent buildings were erected—and filled as soon as the doors swung open. Every hamlet built its high school, and the enrollment doubled each decade until today half the youth of the land are in daily attendance. The phenomenon of multiplied secondary schools, unparalleled even in the dreams of other nations, is a magnificent possibility rather than a glorious cause of complacency. We have the physical plants and half the youth, but we have not yet decided with any respectable definiteness what we want secondary education to accomplish. Certainly no informed person when he thinks in terms of national or of individual life can be proud of the results of the higher education that we provide. But both the public and the profession are complacent about it.

The public is complacent because it is committed to a fetish: it has been taught to believe in "education," and it does. It has been too busy scrambling along on the road to prosperity to think what education is or should be. It has been too occupied with other things to note that the curriculum manifests far too little effects on the lives of youth after they leave the schools. It has devotion to its children and is determined to "give every one a chance." It is proud of the physical plants and of the published reports of attendance; it is ordinarily undisturbed, the children happy in protected congregations, for the most part enduring, rather than rejoicing in, academic tasks for the sake of congenial social contacts and other activities for which they have keen interests. The public has faith, too—an inordinate faith, perhaps—in the competence of the professional teacher and administrator. It may find fault with the individual, but certainly it is not critical of the profession as a body.

The profession is complacent primarily because it is undisturbed by intelligent and persistent criticism. Why should one expect human nature to kick up the fire when it gives a comfortable warmth? Other people provide the fuel—and few embarrassing questions are asked. The profession is complacent, too, because only a relatively small fraction are sufficiently informed or sufficiently independent in their thinking to realize the social need, the unaccustomed possibilities from education, and the failure of what is taught to manifest results in happier, more effective living by the majority of those who submit themselves to instruction. They seldom realize, too, that the hordes of youth who crowd the high-school classrooms are only half of those who are entitled by our professions of democracy to "an equal chance." So long as parents of the unfortunate half, who likewise soon become citizens, pay their taxes, do not complain too much, and remain faithful to the fetish, it would be expecting too much for the profession to disturb complacency by advertising the fact that much larger appropriations are necessary to provide new types of secondary education appropriate to the needs, capacities, and interests of all youth in a democracy.

The profession is complacent, moreover, because it is easy to follow the tradition and difficult to conceive the larger needs and to invent means of satisfying them. With varying degrees of ability, skill, and inventiveness the individual teacher learns to present conventional English, Latin, mathematics, history, or science so that pupils pass conventional examinations, usually conventionally devised by the instructor or by others with similar outlook and mental habits. It is only the highly exceptional teacher who looks at the needs of society, who perceives the small carry-over from the class to effective living, and who realizes the necessity of major changes in the curriculum in order

that it may justify ideal verbal professions, the largest value of which has been to afford a basis for rationalizing conventional practice. The exceptional teacher who has gleams of perspicuity may struggle a while to effect material changes, but the task is too great for any individual or for any small group of individuals. It is only natural that after sporadic protest proves ineffective there should come conformance—and eventual complacency.

The more I see of people in business or industry, the more I am convinced that teachers as a class are superior in loyalty, industry, and skill in the routines of their work. There is constant professional effort to improve teaching, and by and large it is reasonably well done. Exposition is clear, courses of study are enriched, drill is persistent, and the morale of the classroom is better, far better, than it was a generation ago. "By and large" conceals occasional brilliant work at one extreme and a regrettable amount of crude ineffectiveness at the other. But the justifiable indictment that can be brought against teachers in our secondary schools and also in our colleges does not primarily concern the details of instruction; rather, as previously indicated, it is that the purposes of the whole educative process are uncertain and indefinite and consequently that a great amount of skilled effort is in a large sense meaningless and ineffectual. It is folly to use skill to present knowledge to those who cannot be made to appreciate it and, as the evidence indicates, will never use it. And that is what teachers in our high schools are doing at least a quarter of their time.

It is more natural to expect effective protest and leadership in educational reform from those who head the schools or school systems. The public has come to have in their professional expertness a tolerant and, usually, a blind confidence. Although every third layman will boldly present his ideas

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on education, as he would never have the audacity to do on medicine or engineering, he seldom attempts to influence the curriculum or the technical conduct of classrooms. So long as a superintendent or principal is personally pleasant and does his work with a minimum of friction, he is let alone. It is true that there is an unfortunately high mortality among school administrators, but observation will reveal how seldom it is that one loses his position because of inefficiency in educational leadership. It is quite the contrary, in fact, for the administrator who attempts to make any significant educational changes constantly walks a precarious path. Realizing this, superintendents of school systems find it easy to substitute for educational leadership expertness in personal relations, budget making, building planning, and lubrication of the wheels of the operating machinery. In the dozen largest cities of the country there are not more than four or five superintendents who continue to manifest anything that can honestly be called leadership in education.

Reasons for this unfortunate fact are not hard to find. In the first place, leadership in reconstructing education, especially in secondary schools, requires a degree of intellectual keenness and a breadth of knowledge seldom possessed by those who do have the qualities that satisfy the public in administration. Colleges of education have too complacently worked with the students who came to them, neglecting the ablest minds in order to present such information and skills as would enable the majority to get and hold the most important positions possible.

The beginnings of reform must be in a substitution by professional colleges of educational vision for unpragmatic facts and technical procedures. Those administrators who possess the keenness of intellect, the breadth of knowledge, and the powers of reflective and of inventive thought have been very constantly occupied by performing the

duties that the public has come to expect of them, duties that are important but only as ancillary to education. It requires almost more than human courage to endanger one's comfort and even one's job by disturbing complacency and by persisting in efforts to make the public aware that a large part of their investment in high schools, of which they are proud, is wasted—worse than wasted, since the way it is spent excludes the education that would pay dividends to all pupils as well as to the supporting society. It requires courage, too, to present a program that will undoubtedly demand much larger outlays of money than are provided by the budgets already considered burdensome.

It is intelligence, broad knowledge, vision, convictions, and courage, however, that make for leadership. Although any single individual in attempting such reconstruction as secondary education needs would face a long and exceedingly arduous task, it is the bounden duty of every educator who realizes the need to attempt it. When education is conceived to be the only means that society has for preserving itself and for promoting its ideals, it becomes not only an important activity but also a civic essential. Treason to the state just as truly results from neglect of clearly perceived duty as from a flagrant act. One individual may feel himself impotent, but powerful groups can come only from a collection of active units. The task is difficult, but if we realize the need and desire enough the accomplishment of the vision of possibilities, we shall be able to devise means, at least towards material improvement of practices. Entire satisfaction should never be achieved, for "man's reach should exceed his grasp." With each step forward we should be able to see a higher goal.

Why, one may reasonably ask, are conditions in secondary education bad? We have generally come to think of our high schools

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only with pride. There are more than twenty thousand scattered through our country. Upwards of four million, perhaps five million, young men and women are in attendance. For the most part they are happy in the protected and wholesome atmosphere that is provided, and disciplinary problems as known a generation ago are conspicuous by their infrequency. In recent years manual activities, music, art, and health training have begun to receive the emphasis that they deserve. All subjects in some degree are being related to life. Extracurricular activities, though not always directed with an understanding of their educative possibilities, have extended the realm of the curriculum. Teaching is improving as fast as the hastily recruited faculties settle into professional permanence. Why, then, should there be criticism? Why should we not be proud, satisfied, and complacent?

When expressing criticism it is always difficult to manifest that one is appreciative, proud, and loyal. I am. More than that, I recognize education as the most important instrument—the only instrument, in fact—that society has for perpetuating the ideals that it has accepted for wholesome, happy living, for perpetuating them and for continuously raising them in the new generations higher than those of their fathers. It is by means of a wisely planned and an intelligently directed education that democracy can be rescued from the prostitution into which it is so rapidly falling and can be made effective as the soundest and most ideal form of government. Without the directed aid of such education a degraded democracy will surely be succeeded by some form of Fascism or of communism. It is because of my loyalty to education, because of my faith in its possibilities, that I venture to point out some of its defects and to indicate what seems to be the direction in which it should move. To the complacent my criticisms may seem to be caviling; but too ob-

vious facts refute that suspicion. My apparent skepticism must be considered to indicate, to quote Carlyle, "the decay of old ways of believing, the preparation afar off for new and better and wider ways. . . . Skepticism, as sorrowful and hateful as we see it, is not an end but a beginning."

Expressed briefly, as the exigency demands, rather than at length, as their importance warrants, the outstanding criticisms of our secondary education are as follows.

First, there is no comprehensive and generally accepted philosophy as to what it should accomplish. The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, published in 1918 by the Government Printing Office for the National Education Association, is probably the best popular statement that we have. It has its defects, which professional critics have been more active in pointing out than in remedying, but it is sensible. In the Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence there is proposed a statement of the special functions of secondary education. A comparison of practices everywhere prevalent with these or with any similar statements, however, will reveal such wide discrepancies as to warrant the assertion that we have no directive comprehensive understanding of what our high schools should seek to do. No reasonable philosophy would justify more than a third of their curricular programs.

The one principle that is generally approved is that our secondary schools should furnish an education appropriate to the capacities, interests, and needs of every youth. We have accepted in practice all of this principle except that part expressed by the important word "appropriate." Several million boys and girls annually enter our high schools with expectancy and hope, but "the hungry sheep look up and are not fed." No stretch of the imagination, no subtlety of rationalization can prove that, for example, a foreign language is an "appropriate" study

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for anything like the number of youth who are permitted or forced to elect it, or that algebra is "appropriate" for all boys and girls in the ninth grade. Such studies are fully justifiable for a fraction of youth, but for the majority are as unsuited as houndah trappings for a horse or as oats for an automobile. Similarly, many details in subjects that could be made appropriate are for a large fraction of the classes not contributory to immediate or to any probable future needs.

Moreover, although we universally profess a commitment to the ideal of providing an appropriate education for all youth, we actually enroll only half of those who by this ideal should be in school. Why have the others left? Largely because the schoolmasters have decided that they are incompetent to achieve even the small requirements that are demanded. As will be shown directly, the standards for passing such courses as we do offer are unjustifiably and disgracefully low. But even by such standards hundreds of thousands of youth are forced out of high schools, driven from the "equal chance" that democracy promises. If the subjects that now comprise the conventional curriculum are proper, a larger fraction of youth should be deterred from taking them and eliminated from school. If all youth ought to be prepared during a longer period, when industry has no real need for them, then it inevitably follows that an appropriate curriculum should be devised for each one.

By and large, those who are eliminated are indubitably of less competence in such intelligence as is demanded for studies of abstractions. But it should not be overlooked that many youth of high competence voluntarily leave school because, in spite of its social comfort and other advantages, they are not convinced that its offerings are worth working for. Neither should it be overlooked that all of the eliminated become citizens, with or without preparation for the

duties that fall to them. Fortunately the world has a place for them. Who can doubt that they would make a greater contribution to their own success and happiness as well as to that of the social order if they had the best training that could be provided for their peculiar needs and capacities? Studies by Counts, Holley, Lide, and others show that at present our secondary schools are contributing most to those who have already been most favored by the fortunes of nature and environment. For every 1,000 men engaged in the professions Counts showed that there are 360 children in the high schools; the same number of men engaged in the machine trades, personal service, and common labor had 169, 50, and 17 children respectively in secondary schools. Moreover, of every 100 children from these groups in the ninth grade, 60 of those whose fathers were in the professions remained until the last year. Of those whose fathers were in the machine trades, personal service, and common labor only 21, 22, and 12 respectively remained. From such facts it appears that democracy provides from three to five times as well in secondary education for those from the economically superior families as for those with most need. Truly democracy gives to those who have.

A second criticism which in honesty must be made is that we have not conscientiously sought to put into practice in our secondary schools such philosophy as we do profess. We become indignant when now and then some layman attacks our high-school work. Unfortunately for the attacks the layman usually bases his criticism on a partial and wholly inadequate conception of what education is for. But fortunately for us he also bases it on a very slight knowledge of what from all of our impressive professions we attempt and accomplish. I challenge every administrator of a high school in our land to justify the practices by any philosophy that he has accepted or may formulate. If we

were truly professional, we should not wait for a challenge; we should have long ago set it up for ourselves. Partial justification there will be for many details, of course, especially in those schools that are happy in having a principal with vision, courage, and industry; but the failures, the innumerable failures, of practices to accord with professions are sufficient to cause a revolution on the part of parents and of taxpayers.

Tradition is more potent than intelligence. It is easier to give assent to a principle than to translate it into practice. It is more comfortable to continue what is being done without protest from school patrons than to disturb them with proposals for desirable changes. But, nevertheless, changes ought to be made. It is not honest to profess and to advertise beautiful ideals and then to neglect them in practice or, at best, to subordinate them to unjustifiable tradition. Because of its fetish for education for democracy, education for citizenship, education for better living, education for culture, the public trusts those whom it has selected to direct its schools. Failure to exert every effort, intelligently, skillfully, honestly, and persistently, is, to speak mildly, misfeasance in office. It is well within the limits of accuracy to say that in secondary education today there is a serious attempt to apply to practice only a small part of the philosophy that has been accepted or of the facts and findings of scientific research.

A third criticism of our secondary education is that, even with the subject matter that is offered and with the selectivity of students already noted, accomplishments are far from respectable. This is no mere pessimistic impression. The facts are revealed by the results of the standardized tests prepared and administered by our own experts. One has only to consult the published results of surveys in which such tests have been used or the achievements of students as revealed by the standards themselves to be convinced.

With the passing of the old psychology of discipline and of transfer the only results of study that can be counted successful are mastery and the ability to use. Mastery, though now properly one of our slogans, is not achieved by one fifth of our students in foreign languages, mathematics, history, or the sciences. Mastery in such subjects as ordinarily presented cannot be achieved by more than half of the students who are permitted, encouraged, or required to take them. Worse than that, the very presence of students inapt for such subjects as organized prevents mastery and acceleration by the gifted for whom such studies are appropriate.

The record is open to all who wish the facts. In any community a demagog may at any time use them seriously to embarrass the support of secondary schools. If such an attack should come—and it is deferred only because those who are hostile are not informed—if such an attack should be directed by laymen of strength and of skill to move people, the cause of secondary education would be set back at least a generation. Far better that the friends of education, those who know its necessity and who have a vision of its possibilities in preserving democracy and in forwarding civilization, should face the facts and clean house than that the faith of the people should be impaired and the essential structure undermined.

The final criticism to be adduced is that our secondary schools are not even reasonably successful in setting up attitudes so favorable to the subjects presented that any respectable fraction of students, even of those who have been stamped as successful, care enough for them to continue their studies in higher institutions or independently. It is a well-known fact that those students who enter colleges to a large extent refuse to elect, when they have the privilege, further study in subjects to which they have devoted much time, perhaps the major part of their time, in high schools. And the phenomenon

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of men and women independently continuing the pursuit and use of the foreign languages, mathematics, history, English literature, and science to which they have been introduced is so rare as always to excite comment. Where are the evidences of the effective results of secondary education? The answer that you will give in citing a relatively small number of instances would be more convincing if it involved anything like the majority of alumni for a majority of the subjects or of the details of subjects that have been required or permitted.

These criticisms, even when considered along with unquestioned and unquestionable achievements, are too convincing to be denied. Along with them should be recorded the fact that thousands of teachers are making more or less uncoordinated and for the most part philosophically undirected efforts to remedy the shortcomings. But by and large the situation is discouraging indeed, especially in the smaller schools. All evidence goes to substantiate the assertion that the small high schools are the least effective. For this the State departments of education are most to blame. With largest freedom of action they have attempted and accomplished least. And they most resent what they would call caviling at their complacency. These criticisms are discouraging, and they will be unprofitable if they merely result in despondency or in a loss of enthusiasm. If we have professional leaders, they will justify their responsibilities by remedying the causes.

In previously discussing the situation, before the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools,¹ I proposed a commission of educators, philosophers, economists, sociologists, and others eminent in the pertinent fields, who would consider the problems involved and propose a national program in which education would find its

place. It is obvious to all who have wrestled with the problems of secondary education that it cannot be intelligently reformed until national ideals of society, industry, and politics are formulated and generally accepted. Any attempt at reform without the general understanding of such ideals will inevitably be fortuitous, dangerous, and ineffective.

The proposal of such a commission has been met by the objection that other commissions, in other fields as well as in education, have not justified themselves or certainly have not accomplished what was expected of them. It should not be overlooked, however, that any success, however short it may come of what is hoped for, is progress. Each step in progress should reveal others that need to be taken. The commission that I propose to initiate our first steps out of what is theoretically a *laissez faire* but what is actually a convention of aimless and indefinite tradition would differ from others in several important respects. In the first place, it would be composed of men and women of power and of eminence in all the fields contributory to a national program. Unfortunately many of our educational commissions have been composed of too many members, eminent but not competent. It has been a tragic custom in our profession to place on committees for reforming the curriculum, to take one example, men who are leaders in administration but who had nothing to contribute to the improvement of subject-matter selection and organization. Achievement in one field does not necessarily make one competent in another, especially if he gives that other only a minor part of his attention.

The proposed commission would differ in another respect from those to which we are accustomed. Its members would give to its work their full and undivided time. No longer should we have the phenomenon, humorous if it were not tragic, of men giving an occasional, hurried, and unprepared day to the consideration of the vital problem

¹ See "Jeremiah Was Right," in *Teachers College Record*, May 1931.

that they were appointed to solve. No longer would the members of the commission attend meetings only if other duties made it convenient; nor would they be called out to make speeches, to aid the jobless, or to give decisions in their major job. The members of the proposed commission would have no other major job. They should be appointed only if in addition to competence they have an appreciation of the responsibility entrusted to them and an enthusiasm for the possibilities in public service.

The proposed commission should differ in still a third way. It should have the responsibility for developing a program to an extent that it becomes practicable and convincing. No longer would it be content with generalities, meaningless or remote in meaning from the work to be done. It would be empowered to secure the appointment of any number of minor committees, similarly of those peculiarly competent and devoted solely to the task in hand, and to direct their continuous labors to practical accomplishment. To make this probable the commission would of necessity set up machinery for popularizing its findings among the lay public as well as among professional educators. The time is approaching when the stockholders in the great investment of education must be constantly informed concerning the major program. When it is sound it can be understood by the intelligent layman as well as by the teacher. And only as it is understood and approved by the public can education be on a firm foundation. Responsibilities for the expert carrying out of the technical details must, of course, be left to the professional educator.

The need of such a commission to prepare a national program in which education will find its place is our paramount need. That such a task is stupendous goes without saying. It is as stupendous as it is important. A planless education will necessarily be an ineffective education—ineffective, wasteful,

and obstructive of the possibilities of better procedures for social good. In nothing other than the most important things of life—social welfare, religion, and education—do we proceed planlessly. Every business, however small, has its plan. Every personal project, however insignificant, has its plan. In the World War, when we became conscious of need and alarmed at danger, we developed a plan that involved all the activities that were essential to success. When and only when we become conscious, not merely of the waste in education but also of its necessity for preserving and for promoting democracy, under which prosperity and happiness may come, shall we plan also for education in a national program.

Other nations, in varying degrees, have already realized this necessity and have set about preparing such a plan and in some cases are well embarked on carrying it out. Nations have successfully used great plans in times past—from the Incas to Prussia and Japan. Russia is, of course, the outstanding example today. Its Gosplan, a comprehensive program for the whole Soviet Republic, is progressing in its third year, and already its experts are developing a second and more ambitious plan to begin in 1933. Before these plans we stand in amazement, so different they are from our national custom of individual and uncoordinated initiative, of *laissez faire*, of "muddling through."

When reading Ilin's *New Russia's Primer*, which explains for Russian youth the Russian plan for increasing production of all kinds of necessities, one is likely to get an impression that the ideal is merely to achieve the economic and industrial success of the United States of America. Nothing could be farther from the truth. Krupskaja has written that its aim is "to enable every human being to obtain personal cultivation, to share to the fullest the things that give value to human life." The Gosplan is merely an economic means to a social ideal. Set up what

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standards we please of cultured civilization, and we find apparently unprejudiced records to show that Russia is moving towards them. "In no other country," writes Sherwood Eddy in *The Challenge of Russia*, "does one find the art galleries, the museums, the opera, concert, and theater, all of the highest quality, so thronged with working men. . . . No other nation has made the cinema such an instrument of education, with such a powerful political and social message, . . . a vast educational force for teaching the socialized conceptions and building the kind of character they desire." We are told of "a whole network of clubs, educational and recreational centers, . . . where the workers spend their spare hours in reading, study, and recreation. There is a room for lectures and entertainments, classrooms for groups. . . . Most clubs are equipped with radio and for moving pictures." The various coöperatives publish papers, pamphlets, magazines, and books; and "The Red Army . . . places as much emphasis upon training in literary and political ideology for communist citizenship as it does upon military drill." Twenty-one per cent of the national budget is devoted to education and to cultural purposes.

The Five-Year Plan, reports Walter Duranty, "is a slogan for a national policy and purpose rather than the glorified budgetary program which it appears at first sight to be. . . . It is a goal to aim at. . . . The whole purpose of the plan is to get the Russians going—that is, to make a nation of eager, conscious workers out of a nation that was a lump of sodden, driven slaves." It is producing "a tremendous release of enthusiasm, of creative energy, of courage, and of confidence in life."

We in the United States have been slow to take the Gosplan seriously. Everywhere, especially in the conservative daily newspapers, reports of failure are emphasized, if not exaggerated, and news of success is minimized or interpreted as emanating from

the unjustified enthusiasm of irresponsible communists. We have heard and read much of the stupid, complaisant Slav, of the squalor of the people, of misery and suffering from inadequate food and clothing, of wild children, of strange and offensive social and economic mores, of armed compulsion to labor, of cruel and vindictive punishments, of lack of materials and of technical skills, and of the inevitable failures of the Gosplan. One by one such reports are issued, and though in detail they fade from memory or are in time corrected by subsequent and equally authentic news of a contradictory nature, they leave their impressions. We become convinced that the Russians are failing, that they must fail—because we wish them to. But from such a project there can be no failure. Any accomplishment is success. Any accomplishment is progress towards a clearly conceived and ardently desired goal. The factories may produce only 7,000 of the 70,000 tractors that were planned; but the people will have 7,000 tractors more than existed in the country before.

Any plan that comprehends the welfare of the whole country is in itself a success. If it did no more than coördinate the various phases of a single industry, like grain farming or oil production, it would be significant and unique in our experience. But, as we have seen, it does far more: it plans to coördinate the entire life of the nation—agricultural, industrial, mercantile, economic, and, what is even more impressive, the social, aesthetic, and moral lives of the people as well. "Not failure," as James Russell Lowell wrote, "but low aim is crime." And by that criterion not even the most hostile critic can convict the Russians.

Since the above was written the National Civic Federation, following proposals by Matthew Woll of the American Federation of Labor, William Traylor, Stuart Chase, Charles Beard, Rudolph Spreckels, Samuel H. Schlichter, Senator La Follette, and

others, has initiated a project to "stabilize production, eliminate unemployment, and integrate the industrial and economic structure" of the United States. Such a proposal indicates that we are tardily coming to a realization of the necessity of abandoning our policy of extreme individualism in industry and of planning coöperatively. To such action we were forced by necessities in the World War, foolishly abandoning it when the military crisis was over; and to such action, in one form or another, we shall be forced by the situation in which we find ourselves after a delightful self-deception in the recent bull market. All thoughtful men realize that though the pendulum may recently have swung too far to the side of pessimism and depression, it can never again, under present conditions, despite the buoyant verbal encouragement of those who have nothing else to offer, swing as high to the other extreme. The proposal of the National Civic Federation may not be the wisest one to follow; the Federation may not be the proper authority to call or to direct a planning congress. But in some form, under some auspices, planning is inevitable. It will be a tragedy if selfish and greedy men or any less than the most competent of the nation are permitted to direct it.

Objections are raised, even by those who admit the wisdom of the Gosplan for Soviet Russia, that conditions here are different and that, consequently, we can never expect a farsighted comprehensive plan that promises success. Different we are, undoubtedly. No sane person could expect the Gosplan or anything similarly administered to be effective in the United States. But such an objection reveals a lack of faith in the inventiveness of our people, an inventiveness in which we have always previously had confidence and of which we have at times unseasonably boasted. The Russians did not copy any other nation's plans; following *ab longo intervallo* proposals that originated in

the United States, they devised one that they think suited to their own needs and conditions. "If the Russians can plan," Stuart Chase insultingly asserts, "so can cows." Certainly we are not willing to admit that we are less competent than they to formulate a comprehensive and coördinating plan that is suitable to our needs and to our conditions. Conditions are different; therefore we must rely on ourselves. There is no one else to copy. If the challenge be realized, we shall plan independently and boldly.

The challenge is before us. Overproduction, unnecessary duplication of units of production, devious and costly means of distribution, waste, unemployment, accustomedness to standards of living higher than the majority of men can continue to maintain, extremes of poverty and of wealth—the evidences are embarrassingly before us. It would be only a violently exaggerated patriotism that could expect a nation without planning to continue successful competition—and competition in the world's markets is inevitable—with any other nation of equal natural resources that does plan. "Day by day the shadow of Russia falls sharper, bolder upon the face of the world." The question is not Shall we learn? but Shall we learn in time to maintain our national status and even our democratic government? One does not have to be a pessimist to see in the present challenge a crisis of the gravest import.

But, say the objectors, the Russians are using propaganda. Unquestionably they are using propaganda, using it through every means that they control—the schools, the press, none of which is privately owned or free, the adult clubs, the more than four million youths in the Komsomols, Junior Pioneers, and Octobrists, organizations similar to our Boy and Girl Scouts, the Coöperatives, the theater, the moving pictures, pageants, and the army. "In Russia," wrote John Dewey, "propaganda is in behalf of a burn-

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ing public faith—the universal good of universal humanity. In consequence, propaganda is education and education is propaganda.”

We are afraid of propaganda. The very word has come to have for us a sinister meaning—chiefly, it may be suspected, because nations that we have considered hostile have used it more skillfully than we knew how to do. We dislike the word, and yet we use propaganda daily and extensively for the promotion of private business or of enterprises uncoordinated for public good. Advertising is propaganda. Booster campaigns for a community chest use propaganda. Revival meetings in Protestant churches are propaganda. The Roman Catholic church established under Pope Urban VIII a college for the training of propagandists for spreading the faith. In the World War we used propaganda at home and abroad as persistently and as skillfully as we knew how to do. Why, then, are we afraid to use it in the education of adult citizens and of youth for the promotion of ideals and consequent activities that are necessary for the preservation and the promotion of the welfare of society as a whole? A foolish notion is prevalent that youth should be given facts and then left to decide and act for himself. But the very choice of the facts that are to be laid before him and their arrangement constitute a powerful influence on his decisions. What we actually do is to leave to those who may feel no concern with broad social problems or with a sound societal program the selection and presentation of the facts that determine youth's future attitudes towards life. Worse than that, we permit zealots for narrow and even pernicious ideals to warp the minds of youth into devotion to petty theories which, to say the least, are not the best possible for the welfare of the nation.

The plain reason why we are generally hostile to propaganda in our higher schools is that we have no program that enkindles

“a burning public faith.” The Russians restrict secondary education because what they plan to offer is too important to waste on those not competent to profit from it. We profess to throw wide the doors of the high school because the public does not seriously think that the curriculum will materially harm or materially help youth after they leave its portals. A Congressional investigating committee or some zealous State's attorney advertises communist propaganda in our own country, but neither professional educators nor the public are impelled by devotion to democracy to set up an intelligent and co-ordinated counter propaganda for a better theory of society and government. There are abundant and alarming evidences that democracy is degenerating both in its ideals and in its effectiveness. It can be saved only if the nation has a comprehensive plan and uses all the agencies at its disposal, primarily education, for popularizing it and developing the intelligent devotion necessary for carrying it out.

It would be a tragic and an all but irreparable misfortune if such a planning commission as proposed by the National Civic Federation should be so shortsighted as to limit its agenda to considerations only of an economic and industrial program. We cannot criticize Russia for materialistic planning and then fail ourselves to incorporate the ultimate activities and values. It should be obvious even to those whose business is the direction of the material progress of the nation that no comprehensive plan can be effective that does not concern the social, moral, and political life of the nation. It should be equally obvious that ultimate success is dependent on education. The best techniques developed by our schools can most profitably be used for educating—for propagandizing, if you please—the adults of the nation concerning the plan; and it is essential for its success that the rising generations receive such education that they will

be able and disposed to its execution and development.

Real leadership in our profession will not wait for business men and industrialists in national planning to neglect education or to propose what it can contribute to societal and economic welfare. Real leaders will take the initiative. This they can do in two ways. First they can begin seriously to plan, so far as they are able, for modifying and enlarging the curricula in their own classes, schools, or school systems. This, as I have said elsewhere, will be dangerous, for any education that manifestly affects the attitudes and consequent actions of young men and women disturbs tradition and rouses shortsighted and selfish members of any community to active opposition. This means, of course, that the plans for a more effective education must be so sound, so reasonable, that they can overcome opposition. Anything definite, especially after it has been put into operation, has a tremendous advantage over opposition that is based on a tradition of the common curriculum and on indefinite prejudices. Whatever is attempted must have a concomitant program for public understanding and approval. Any individual schoolman will be skeptical of his competence to contribute materially to the desired program. But it is only as individuals make contributions, however small, in the direction of progress that a material movement will get under way.

Leaders may take the initiative in yet another way. We already have a tremendous hierarchy of educational organizations, from the faculties of individual schools to the National Education Association. These meet weekly, monthly, or annually. A certain part of the programs of their meetings must be devoted to matters of administration, to the smooth running of the machinery as it exists; a larger fraction remains to be used for planning new and better activities. The cost in time and, in the case of the larger or-

ganizations, in money as well is tremendous. It has been conservatively estimated that the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence with its allied organizations costs well over a million dollars, and this respectable sum takes into account nothing for salaries paid during the week of attendance. Every State association and county institute is held at a cost that is relatively greater to the area represented by the teachers and, moreover, as schools are closed during the meetings the pupils get no direct education during the periods. Obviously there should be a better education, an education at least justifying the outlays and the effort, as a result of professional meetings. It is doubtful if with the conventional programs such a justification can be proved, or even that it exists. There are undoubted advantages in the professional meetings of educators; but there can be no question that at the same time there is tremendous waste in them. The ordinary county institute is a scandal, and many city and State professional meetings are no better.

What would not be the potentialities for good if the professional meetings of teachers, from the lowest to the highest, turned their attention to planning a program whereby the schools would contribute definitely to the betterment of societal welfare! Such meetings would then be more popular than the hotel lobbies, and discussions would at least rival efforts of individuals to improve their own positions. There is not one program in five that could not find the time for discussion of such a planning without loss to the effective running of the schools in other matters. What is needed is leadership that has a longer vision than pertains to immediate administration, that has a breadth of knowledge deep enough to understand the needs of society, that has the power to stimulate dormant inventiveness, and that has the courage to initiate a new curriculum reasonable with respect to needs when

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evaluated in terms of the whole of life. Such leadership can manifest itself in single classes or schools or school systems; it will be most potent when, coöperating, it directs the dynamics of professional organizations of educators. Such leadership can force the inclusion of education in any plan that is formulated by economists, industrialists, or statesmen.

Large-scale planning is peculiarly difficult in a democracy. But the time has come when our democracy must plan or gradually perish. Failure may come in the competition with other nations, but it is more likely in the disintegration of ideals and in the activities of individual selfishness. To those who observe widely and think keenly there are

already alarming symptoms, and equally alarming is the complacency with which the public regards planless "progress," whatever its direction. Planning there must be, but any and every plan must begin with a clearly defined objective. What do we wish our nation to be? Having answered that question, and not before, we are ready to formulate a program. And when we formulate it education, especially from the twelfth year onward, will be found an essential to effective accomplishment. When there is a national plan secondary education will no longer be for most youth a fetish and a luxury. Finding its direction it will become for society an essential to preserving and to promoting the ideals of democracy.

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ROY BEDICHEK

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Bedichek has presented many reasons for using competition as a stimulus to learning. His article may be read with profit by both the proponents and opponents of the contest as an aid to real educational development in the child. We are sure that our readers would be glad to read an article devoted to the other side of this question. The editorial board would welcome an article of this nature.*

E.R.G.

The young of many animals play instinctively, often with the encouragement, sometimes under compulsion of adults. All play has in it an element of competition. It has been observed that the play of young animals tends to strengthen those muscles, to develop that cunning in both pursuit and escape, and to quicken those reactions, which are needed for the preservation of the species. Young rabbits play "pursuit and escape" games, as do the pups of the coyote. In later life "pursuit and escape" matches between individuals of these two species occur in which the prize for the coyote is a dinner and the prize for the rabbit is a longer lease on life. Books on animal behavior teem with similar illustrations of the training which competitions afford the young

of a given species for more serious contests later on.¹

Educational competitions among the children of primitive peoples are all but universal. Professor W. P. Webb in his recent book *The Great Plains* calls attention to the necessity which arose among the Comanches (and among other plains Indians as well) for mastering the art of horsemanship when the herds of wild horses entered this area. Until these animals invaded the Great Plains, Indians were afoot, following buffalo herds and making a poor best of a pedestrian existence in an environment of "great distances" seemingly designed by na-

¹ For discussion of the biological basis of competition, see George Ordahl, "Rivalry: Its Genetic Development and Pedagogy," *Pedagogical Seminary*, XV (1908), pp. 492-459.

ture for only those species which could cover long spaces in a short time, or for massive brutes, such as the buffalo, which can live on grass and ward off enemies by mere bulk of the individual or the mass, and by great defensive power. Into this environment, with the interrelations of its life stabilized by the operation through untold centuries of nature's law of the survival of the fittest, came this new animal, the horse. The red man and the mustang formed an immediate partnership, the disturbing effects of which union shook the life of the plains, human and subhuman, like an earthquake.

Any one generally familiar with the teaching power of contests, knowing these facts, would argue a priori that competitions in horsemanship must have been used in order to master this new weapon which providence placed at their disposal. Upon examination of the record, we find ample evidence that such contests were extensively used, and a horsemanship developed which was superior to that of any other of which there is authentic record.²

Primitive peoples who live on lakes, rivers, or the sea-beaches have aquatic sports for the young as a preparation for the mastery of their environment. They swim, dive, become expert canoeists, and artists in the camouflage necessary for catching birds and other game. The boat race which is a part of the bridal ceremony among the Maoris is evidently a survival of what once was an actual boat race for the bride. So, besides the evidence of observers of animal behavior, we have the testimony of historians and anthropologists who describe at great length the educational contests of primitive man.

² George Catlin, *Illustrations of the Manners, Customs, and Traditions of the North American Indians* (New York: Willy and Putnam, 1841), pp. 495-496, quoted by W. P. Webb, *The Great Plains* (New York: Ginn and Company, 1931), p. 64.

The ancient Greeks taught athletic skills, military practices, oratory, drama, poetic composition, and many other subjects by means of their great games and festivals. The Homeric poems are filled with accounts of contests, and Hesiod records that he won an "eared tripod with my ode at the games of Amphidamus." The Platonic dialogues, considered by many competent critics a record of the greatest conversations ever held among men, were in effect a conversational competition. Socrates is the outstanding intellectual hero of the dialogues just as Achilles is the great athletic warrior hero of the *Iliad*. In these conversational matches there were definite rules to the observance of which the participants were strictly held. One might devise a set of formal rules from an attentive reading of the *Protagoras*; for illustration: that a contestant may elect either to ask or to answer the questions of the other; that having elected to answer, his answers must be definite, must give the opinion of the answerer, and must be short and to the point. Moreover, Plato clearly means to stage these conversations as contests. Socrates always plays humble. He is going to be pitted against some great and hitherto unthrown sophist. His followers are fearful but hopeful. He is put forward in a representative capacity. So cleverly is all this arranged that the reader feels himself drawn into sympathy with the great conversational hero, becomes, so to speak, a member of the flock of conversation "fans" who follow the sage about the streets of Athens picking conversational rows with any philosopher who happens to have drifted in from the provinces. Socrates, generally considered the greatest teacher, used the competitive stimulus in practically all of his teaching.

The Jesuits, skilled schoolmasters of the middle ages, were so committed to competitions that they had their schoolrooms divided by leaving an open space through the middle with one half of the class on one

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side and half on the other, each facing the schoolmaster's desk in the center, for greater convenience in pitting one portion of the class against the other in scholastic contests. Not having interschool competitive units, they created, by this simple device, competitive units in the class itself. Feudalism developed its great tournaments in which the young learned the arts of war and lessons in sportsmanship and knightly conduct. The Welsh have become the greatest choral singers of the world largely by means of national contests in choral singing dating back to a time when the memory of man runneth not to the contrary. American pioneers in the wooded regions had their woodchopping and other woodsmen's contests; in the prairie regions the early farmers had their corn-huskings, while the plains cowboy was developing all of the contests in riding and in the mastering of cattle which have now been commercialized in the rodeo. All of these contests may be seen to be directed towards fitting the young for duties and skills of advantage in adult life—towards a mastery of the particular environment in which the individual happens to live.

The immense importance which rulers attribute to contests in giving them a hold on the young may be seen in the recent dispute between Mussolini and the Pope, one of the disputed points being the question of which shall control the athletic sports of young Italians, the church or the state. It is also worth noting that the rulers of Soviet Russia are encouraging only team and mass competitions, and discouraging individual competitions, assigning as the reason that the mass contest creates a communist psychology, whereas individual competitions tend to fix in the minds of the young an individualism which is contrary to the genius of the present government. Although the Chinese have been called the least competitive people on earth, the Chinese system

of education is built up on series after series of competitive examinations. Indeed, there is no great system of education, formal or informal, which has not used to a greater or less extent the competitive impulse to incite participants to greater endeavor.

President Lowell offers as one reason for the reorganization of Harvard University on the House Plan the convenience which it will afford for directing and controlling the competitive impulse of the students.³

There is in American educational thought on this matter today, a hangover from Rousseau and his school who argued that the desire to learn should arise from interest in the subject itself and be entirely free from any extraneous incentive. Horace Mann, the great American exponent of the Roussellian view, inveighed against contests, or prizes of any kind, and many American theorists of the last century followed him.⁴ To what effect? Contests have made steady progress as an integral part of both the curricular and extracurricular activities of American schools. Our whole grading system, the marks, distinctions, and honors for scholastic attainments are in direct violation of the teachings of Rousseau and his school in this matter. There is hardly a State in the union that does not have athletic contests for high schools organized on a State-wide basis. Interschool debating activities are conducted by forty different State leagues.⁵

Extension divisions of many State universities have undertaken to organize and direct interschool competitions in a wide variety of subjects for the public schools of their respective States. The University of Texas, through its Interscholastic League Bureau in the Extension Division, has been

³ Paul A. Schilpp, editor, *Higher Education Faces the Future* (New York: Horace Liveright, 1931), p. 337.

⁴ *Ibid.*

⁵ Almere L. Scott, "Debating As an Intellectual Activity in Our High Schools," *School Life*, November 1930, p. 43.

conducting interschool contests for public schools for the past twenty years. Its schedule of events includes the major athletic sports, volley ball for girls, playground ball, debate in two divisions, essay writing in four divisions, arithmetic, reading, writing, spelling, dramatic contests, art, extemporaneous speech in two divisions, declamation in four divisions, choral singing in two divisions and so on. The majority of these contests are arranged in a series of eliminations grading up from local contests to county contests, from county to district meets, and from district to bi-district and State meets. During the last school year 6,150 Texas schools were members of the organization known as the University Interscholastic League and participated in one or more of the contests. While no other State has such an elaborate program of interschool contests as this, still some such work is carried on under one auspices or another in practically every State in the union.⁶

It may be remarked, parenthetically, that there is a dearth of studies as to the actual effects of these activities. There is little in present-day educational literature to direct public-school administrators in proper control and management of interschool contests. Of books on extracurricular activities there is no end, and in many of these one may find tucked away here and there a paragraph or a chapter devoted to interschool contests, but even these paragraphs and chapters are principally concerned with athletics. Moreover, the chapters and paragraphs on athletics deal mainly with football.⁷

⁶ In a list of publications of organizations conducting State-wide interscholastic nonathletic contests which I compiled in 1925, there are 79 different titles.

⁷ Harry C. McKown, *Extra-Curricular Activities* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927). Chapter on dramatics and value but nothing on dramatic contests. Chapter on music with quotation from University of Oklahoma bulletin on music contests. Chapter on debating but nothing on organization of interschool debates, and so on to athletics, which takes up a whole chapter.

Charles R. Foster, *Extra-Curricular Activities in the*

This latter event (due to the fact that colleges have commercialized the game and use it so largely for noneducational purposes, which disastrous example school communities all over the country are following) is constantly held up to the discredit of interschool contests in general. Indeed, an enormous literature of hostile criticism of football has grown up in the past decade, ranging all the way from the Carnegie Bulletin No. 23⁸ down to the vitriolic editorials appearing in greater and greater profusion in local newspapers. In the space allotted to this article, I cannot undertake to examine these criticisms. Suffice it to say that football as an interschool contest has its uses and abuses, and "there is much to be said on both sides."

Much of the hostile criticisms of football, as well as of other interschool contests, is inspired by the mistakes and mismanagement of those who undertake to promote them. Any one familiar with the literature on the subject is aware, however, that a strong theoretical case may be made against contests of any kind. A strong case may also be made against meat eating, but meat eaters we are and meat eaters we shall probably remain for many generations. Hence, one may be the most violent vegetarian and

High School (Richmond, Va.: Johnson Publishing Company, 1925). Out of the 222 pages in this book you find one page devoted to interschool contests, and that only athletics. Is it true that only 1/222 of extracurricular activities has to do with interschool contests?

Joseph Roemer and Charles F. Allen, *Extra-Curricular Activities in Junior and Senior High Schools* (Boston: Heath and Company, 1926). It is curious that President Coffman, of the University of Minnesota, devotes about one fourth of his introduction to interschool contests, whereas not more than one thirtieth of the text is devoted to this subject, and all that is given to it deals solely with athletics. It would be unkind to suggest that President Coffman probably wrote the introduction without reading the book.

In the Publications Available September, 1930, issued by the United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, listing nearly a thousand bulletins, leaflets, circulars, etc., all devoted to one phase or another of public-school work, there is not one title that suggests interschool contests.

⁸ American College Athletics, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1923.

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still be interested in seeing to it that laws are passed and enforced which secure for the public a sanitary meat supply. Similarly, we may say to those teachers and other school authorities who are opposed to contests that, organized and conducted as our public schools are, we are going to have contests in one form or another whether we believe in them or not. We may grant that an exceptional teacher here and there under quite exceptional conditions may be able through great diligence and the force of a superior personality to substitute in a school the coöperative for the competitive motive. A Tolstoy, a Prince Kropotkin, a Gandhi, or Tagore may actually be able to accomplish such a revolution in a small way. But we are concerned with the practical problem of the best way to use the competitive instinct as we find it in the public schools of America, taught and administered as they are by the ordinary mill run of teachers and administrators.

Middle-aged people will remember, especially if their schooling was had in the smaller schools of the country, the many harmful and disgusting ways in which the competitive instinct expressed itself in the schoolroom and on the playground before the days of organized interschool contests. In those days we had gangs instead of teams. In those days we had "scuffling" instead of wrestling; the larger boys staging fights among the smaller instead of the larger boys refereeing games for the smaller boys. In those days we had dirty-story telling contests; we had teasing, bullying, spitball competitions, and an interesting contest in shooting pin darts into the ceiling of the schoolroom. In many of the large city high schools of the country even today we have the foolish and extravagant competitions among secret societies, a particularly vicious form for the competitive and gang spirit to take, since most of these societies are founded on snobbery and by their very organization pre-

clude the restraint of faculty control.

It seems, then, that the school authorities are thus offered the choice of allowing the competitive instinct to express itself in a way that is subversive of school discipline and upon a content that is either idle and silly or positively vicious—either this, or the alternative of taking a firm hold of the matter by organizing and directing contests in a way that will serve the educational purposes for which schools are conducted. By means of grades, honors, and distinctions, we have already committed ourselves to using the competitive motive inside the school for stimulating pupils to more strenuous endeavor in the regular curricular work. On the playground, we are committed to competitive games. We have rival debating or public-speaking societies, and dramatic clubs which have their competitions within the school itself. But it is the interschool feature that arouses opposition.

Intramural contests are, indeed, ideal in a school large enough to have a program of sufficient range and variety to satisfy the competitive urge of its pupils. The difficulty comes, as indicated by President Lowell in the passage already cited, in providing the competitive units. The value of a contest is greatly enhanced by having the participants engage in it in a representative capacity. It is hard to divide even a large school up into units which put forward their respective representatives in competitions. Many devices have been used, "the reds and the blues," "literary societies," various clubs, etc. But it is uphill work even in a large school. It is impossible in a small school. We are driven, then, in the vast majority of cases, into interschool contests.

Various forms of organization for interschool contests have been devised, ranging all the way from a two-school agreement, or small "conferences" comprising a few schools, up to State-wide organizations which number their individual members by

hundreds or even by thousands. In my opinion, the State-wide organization under the auspices of some higher educational institution, or under the State Department of Education, offers peculiar advantages.

In the first place, such an organization provides a unified control with many practical economies in administration. The unified control ensures the offering of only standard contests with standardized rules and regulations governing not only the contests themselves, but the eligibility of individual contestants. Each school in its particular class is thus placed upon an equal footing. It facilitates "practice meets" which are helpful in training pupils in the various events. It prevents one school or another from running to seed, or as we say in Texas "going hog wild," about some one event, to the neglect of those pupils who are not qualified by nature for participating in it. It ensures a program of events which will engage the interest of a large percentage of the pupils.

A large organization for conducting contests has the advantage of being able to supply expert managers for various events and for the supervision of the whole. In smaller organizations this work is done in a sort of hit-or-miss way by teachers or principals who are already sadly overworked.

The State-wide organization with a full program of events is able to do a great deal of excellent experimenting with contests. Faults in organization which develop in the smaller units of the organization are more easily corrected, new contests may be tried out on a small scale and perfected before being attempted on a large scale, and so on. For illustration, in the Texas organization, county committees are allowed wide latitude in experimenting with new forms of competition. When any one of the two hundred county organizations develops a contest which shows promise, it is investigated, and

if the facts seem to warrant it, the contest is introduced into other counties providing different conditions, and eventually it may be included in the regular program of events. A choral singing contest for rural schools has been lately organized in Texas, after a number of years of experimentation, and with the example and assistance of individuals who have conducted a successful enterprise of similar nature in the rural schools of Iowa. The central office of a State-wide organization thus serves as a sort of clearing house for field experimentation.

With the central office of a State-wide league for interschool contests centered in an institution of higher learning, the assistance of experts in the institution for service in contests in which they are qualified may be more easily secured. The public-speaking department is always ready with assistance in the public-speaking contests. It prepares briefs, bulletins, etc., for the high-school debaters; it is glad to supply expert judges in declamation and in dramatic contests. The athletic department of the institution may be called on for officials, interpretations of technical rules, etc. The English department is of assistance in the essay contests; the school of music helps promote music contests; the classical department conducts Latin tournaments; the library, through its loan service, supplies schools with books and periodicals necessary for the preparation of pupils in various events, and so on. And other advantages of this particular type of organization might be listed if space permitted.

It is my opinion that the interschool contest, properly controlled, intelligently administered, and introduced into curricular subjects as well as into extracurricular activities, often proves a godsend to both the school and community. It substitutes internal drive for external drive. It is a "spur to activity and a whetstone for talent." It is a selective agency which, better than any

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intelligence or other test yet devised, or better than any examination, sets apart for special attention those individuals whom

the Lord has favored—that is, the ambitious, the talented, the pupils with emotional drive and the will to achieve.

HIGH-SCHOOL JOURNALISM: PRESENT TENDENCIES AND PRACTICES

HAROLD SPEARS

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Spears is assistant principal of the Benjamin Bosse High School of Evansville, Indiana. He assisted Dr. Fretwell at Teachers College, Columbia University, last summer and is a recognized authority on high-school publications. Mr. Spears writes that he is an advocate of the policy "train 'em and leave 'em."

F.E.L.

High-school journalism has passed through its formative period, and today is entering a more defined course, where certain practices and tendencies stand out against the varied background as distinctive and momentous. It may be said that high-school journalism has a philosophy of its own, and is no longer the subject of a thousand different masters. This growth has been affected largely by the high-school press associations, the schools of journalism, and the steady stream of journalism books by capable authors.

Outstanding among the tendencies and practices that go to make up this new picture are the following:

1. Advisers of publications are fitting themselves for their work, and administrators are being more critical in their selections.

2. Advisers are organizing into associations to advance their principles and interests.

3. Journalism is fast becoming curricular in high schools, where it once was entirely extracurricular.

4. An effort is being made in many States to standardize the course in journalism. The most common practice is two courses, each a semester long, both usually conducted on the laboratory plan, with the newspaper as the project of the advanced class.

5. Colleges and universities are coming to recognize these courses.

6. It is commonly accepted that the value of the work lies largely in the motivation of English composition.

7. There is definite character training in the work.

8. Better appreciation of newspapers and how to read them are also accepted as purposes of the courses.

9. Although vocational training is no longer considered as a major motive of high-school journalism, every year a number of these young journalists leave high school and go direct to work on the dailies.

10. There is an increasing tendency for advisers to guide rather than dominate, a tendency towards student publications rather than teacher publications.

11. There is a marked tendency towards the newspaper and the handbook, away from the traditional annual and the magazine.

12. There is a tendency for every junior as well as every senior high school to publish a paper, even if a number of these are mimeographed.

13. A special edition of the school newspaper is fast replacing the annual.

14. High-school newspapers are recognized by business men as worth-while advertising media.

15. There is a tendency to sell this advertising on a strictly value received basis,

eliminating the spirit of charity. The progressive paper will no longer accept the ad that bears the phrase, "with the compliments of—."

16. A school publication is not an end in itself, although many staffs look upon each issue as just another task completed.

17. State and national contests and associations are exerting a great influence upon high-school publications, often the winning of a contest being the end towards which the year's efforts are chiefly aimed.

Most noticeable is this tendency towards regional, State, and national contests (often called ratings) for high-school newspapers, magazines, and annuals. Two of the earliest of these contests, and the organizations behind them, grew up at the Universities of Wisconsin and Minnesota. As departments of journalism have increased among the colleges and universities, so have the contests—in almost direct proportion—until today the State is rare that cannot boast of some such organization.

Most of these organizations have limited their activities to their own State, but a few have held open membership to any school in the country. One has become an international organization, the Quill and Scroll, headed by George Gallup, with its office at Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa. Besides editing a magazine, and conducting each year a series of contests in the different phases of journalistic endeavor, it also allows its member schools to select outstanding individuals in publication work to honorary membership in Quill and Scroll. Individual work rather than publications is judged.

Of the national associations holding annual contests for the publications of their members, no doubt the two most often mentioned and with the greatest membership are the Columbia Scholastic Press Association, located at Columbia University, and the National Scholastic Press Association, with its

head office at the University of Minnesota. The student of the practices and tendencies of high-school publications cannot understand them alone, but must first have a picture of these two most influential combines. These associations and the high-school journalistic movement are inseparable.

It might be said that N.S.P.A. had its origin at the University of Wisconsin, for it was there some years back that Fred Kildow was encouraging high-school publications to join the old Central Interscholastic Press Association; but suddenly the earnest Kildow was found at the University of Minnesota boosting the new N.S.P.A. In the meantime, C.I.P.A. had died and its former members were soon enlisting as charter members of N.S.P.A. This society was later followed by the Columbia Scholastic Press Association, with Joseph Murphy as its head.

The endeavors of these two organizations have been similar. They have both encouraged and bettered high-school journalism, both functioning as year-round organizations, supported by annual dues of the members. Columbia Scholastic Press Association publishes a magazine, the *School Press Review*, while N.S.P.A. uses as its official organ the *Scholastic Editor*, edited by Paul Nelson of Chicago. Most of the material appearing in these magazines, as far as the writer can learn, is contributed gratis by the advisers of high-school publications out in the field. This method gratifies both the editor of the magazine and the adviser who writes the article. The former has at hand an ever-flowing stream of copy; the other has that gratification of seeing his stuff in print, and then too it doesn't hurt to get a copy of the magazine to the superintendent. The contents of the two magazines are given over to the betterment of newspaper, magazine, and annual. However, the *School Press Review* has shown little, if any, interest in annuals.

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The climax of the year's activities of each association is the convention and the contest. The C.S.P.A. convention is held in New York City, while the N.S.P.A. meeting moves about from year to year among the cities of the Middle West. Last year Cleveland had it, this year Chicago. Thousands of high-school journalists attend these three-day meetings, and enter enthusiastically into the discussions. So many round-table discussions are held, some advisers find it necessary to take delegations of about ten to the convention in order to carry home the bulk of the conclusions.

It is lamentable but natural that there should be a spirit of rivalry between these two associations. No doubt this past year they both overlooked the fact that quantity does not ensure quality, for they were disturbed as to which had the largest membership. Columbia Scholastic Press Association naturally has its stronghold in the East and South, while N.S.P.A. has its grip on the West and Midwest. However, many schools belong to both. An independent national contest to determine the best high-school papers, conducted the past two years by Washington and Lee University, has indicated both times that the best high-school journalistic endeavors are found in the West and Midwest. It is true that the *Scholastic Editor* surpasses its rival, and it is natural to expect more from N.S.P.A., so sincere have been the efforts of Fred Kildow and so experienced are he and his colleagues in their field. Then, too, the society is older than its Eastern rival.

Both organizations have been mum about the judging in the contests, announcing the ratings and giving a standard of measurement, but telling nothing of how it was possible to judge so many hundred publications. A standard of measurement may be ever so good, but its application depends upon the judge. An adviser may conscientiously object to certain markings and

rightfully. It is not doubted that there is an honest effort to do the job, but standards of journalism vary with the journalist. Perhaps too great emphasis is placed on the results in these contests. It is true that they have been a stimulus to high-school journalism, but perhaps they have served their purpose and should be revised, or give way to new methods of stimulation.

The rivalry in the publication of high-school annuals has been keen, and where one annual "makes" its school another "breaks" its school. Expensive covers, high-priced professional art work, and expensive outside advice are helping in the death of the yearbook. Engraving companies like to tell of "their" annuals that have won in contests. Annuals, unlike newspapers, are destitute of educative experience. A staff is appointed, with an adviser often selected because his extracurricular schedule is light, the traditions of the college annual hover in the background, the student body is taxed to the nth degree, merchants are asked to "donate," and the small staff with professional help hurry out the publication, because it has always been done. Thanks to the influence of Columbia University, a saner view of the situation is forthcoming. Professor Elbert K. Fretwell, of Columbia, in his new book, *Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*, says: "The school should either eliminate the annual, or provide the time and training necessary for the production of the annual on an educative basis."

Then, too, the high-school adviser who sees the winning of a contest as the end of her endeavors is apt to deprive the staff of much of the fun and educative experience in publishing the paper, dominating the pages, reading copy, writing difficult headlines, making up the dummies, helping read proof, and even soliciting advertising. There is no more justification for the adviser to read the copy of the paper than there is for

the football coach to don a uniform and enter the big game with his team. There are, thank goodness, an increasing number of advisers who do not read the stuff of the paper until it is off the press. That's clean journalism and educative journalism. There is training in judgment for the student editors there. The adviser who is "afraid" of his staff has perhaps neglected their training. An adviser's time should be devoted to the beginning class, not to the actual work of the paper.

Advisers now and then complain of a heavy teaching load. This is sometimes the result of inadequate training in the work. It is the administrator's duty to see that the teacher who handles the publications is qualified. So rapidly are journalism schools increasing, there is no justification of inadequately trained advisers. The adviser who feels she must do a great share of the staff's work will find herself overloaded. Once well organized, two news classes will be but

little more exacting than two regular English classes.

"A strong factor to be" in the field of high-school journalism, might well be said of the National Association of High School Journalism Advisers, which meets annually at the N.S.P.A. convention. It is a young organization, but promising, since it includes the leaders in the field. A number of professional studies are already under way, which will be carried back to the members. For example, Margaret Sullivan, of Cleveland, is working on the problem of better training for teachers of journalism. This program is a five-year step. The association has been recognized by the National Education Association as an affiliated organization.

School publications have before them these new improved roads, and many are already speeding along on them towards better journalism, and those that are still mired down in backward conditions will eventually turn on to these new highways.

THE PLACE OF LITERATURE IN THE TEACHING OF SCIENCE

L. M. DOUGAN

EDITOR'S NOTE: Should the teaching of science be "scientific," or should it be artistic and even imaginative? Mr. Dougan and Miss Cole recommend the latter, as illustrated by Miss Cole's concrete experience in which a new world of nature is opened up for us by handling the facts and realities as an artist.

L.B.

The writer's class in the summer term of the School of Education of New York University were considering the teaching of elementary science. They had granted the validity of the three principles of sense impression, scientific interpretation, and artistic expression. Of the importance of training the senses to gather data regarding the physical world there was no question. The facts so gathered must of course be organized and interpreted according to the laws of the sciences involved. But the importance of artistic expression of the facts was not so clear.

Discussion revealed that much of the literature of nature is often animistic, personal, or inexact. Some held that the artistic or emotional values of this literature are hostile to the aims of science

but most of the group agreed that in artistic expression, whether one's own or another's, lies considerable value for immature students. The discussion drew out the following personal experience submitted by Miss Violet D. Cole of Miss Spence's School for Girls, New York City.

The procedure in developing appreciation must vary with the capabilities of the individual groups and the personality of the teacher. We can arrange criteria for a flexible guide after some experience. My own leads me to this one rule: poetry and prose selections cannot often be introduced without a valid reason. Occasionally there can

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be an insertion purely for enjoyment's sake. Infrequently done, it remains enjoyment; too often done, and pleasure ceases. Let me illustrate: This spring I had occasion to walk in Central Park with a group of eight or ten girls. We had paper and pencil with us, intending to sketch. A bend in the road brought us to a glorious row of cherry trees in bloom. Dropping to the grass, we began sketching those trees as we found them. As a group we noted the gnarled and twisted branches of the trees, the darkness of the bark, and the short trunks. The maze of bloom obscured what foliage there was, and search revealed only a few small green leaves. These observations continued while the sketching progressed. The next day a few of us painted our sketches in pale pinks and whites. A discussion ensued, as the girls who had not been on the excursion questioned the others about what they had done. At that juncture I brought out the poetry book, saying that a poet had described just such a scene in England. It was A. E. Housman's *Loveliest of Trees*:

Loveliest of trees, the cherry now
Is hung with bloom along the bough,
And stands about the woodland ride
Wearing white for Eastertide.

Now, of my three score years and ten,
Twenty will not come again.
And take from seventy springs a score,
It only leaves me fifty more.

And since to look at things in bloom
Fifty springs are little room,
About the woodland I will go
To see the cherry hung with snow.

The poem was read, discussed, and read twice again before we had our fill of its lovely imagery and rhythm. There, I felt, was real appreciation.

Another day, when the class was in an especially receptive mood, I introduced (without provocation, in this instance) a

poem from Hughes Mearns' collection *Creative Power*. It was *Fire Pictures*, written by a twelve-year-old girl. Discussion afterwards brought on imagery from the group; we reached for paper and pencil to write. Here is one result, a poem we liked best afterwards, when we read our efforts to one another.

THE LOVELIEST TREE

One day I was out with Jim,
Trees he was cutting. One was so tall and slim—
It looked up into the bright blue sky
Waving its lovely branches so lightly. O my—
"Do you have to cut it down, Jim?" said I.
But it was too late.

The next day was so very cold
That mother said, "The wind is bold,
And we will have a nice big fire
That will warm us when we are tired."
Jim came in the door and brought lots of wood.
And I told mother I didn't want a fire,
But she never understood.

These are illustrations of integrated activity surrounding natural science. It is correlation, if you will, and in these cases, vindicated, I believe, by the spontaneity of expressions. In its highest development, this kind of activity is ideal. It does not preclude reading for reading's sake, nor observation of trees for observation's sake.

The criteria for selecting literary material to be used are rather inflexible, for, in the interests of good taste, none but the finest should be employed as far as possible. If the author opens up a new world of nature for us; handles his facts and realities as an artist; if we, as a result, love animals or plants better; if the author's motive in writing is artistic before being scientific; or if he emerges as an imagist rather than as a scientist, then his work is worth the handling. Besides these criteria, he must show a restraint and balance in sentiment to escape being maudlin. To reveal a personality rather than to picture a type is his field.

We have admitted that there is a place for nonartistic writing in science. There are parodies, jingles, and rhymes that could never bear literary scrutiny; yet if they contain only one scientific fact and are sufficiently intelligent, they may be used occasionally.

Evidently then, there is a real place for the use of literature in science. It harks back to the old folk tales of the days when the earth was all important to man. It continues to be man's theme in writing and serves as an inspiring supplement to nature observation.

THE ADVISER AND THE ASSEMBLY

JOSEPHINE JOHNSTON

EDITOR'S NOTE: Miss Johnston attacks the accepted procedure of the regular assembly, points out its frequent failures, and suggests a plan for injecting meaning into this part of school life. Miss Johnston is a teacher at Westwood, New Jersey.

L.B.

In this article we shall agree with writers on the assembly period in the fact that the assembly as an extracurricular activity should stress pupil participation and should have a regular place on the school schedule. We believe that "it should be the outgrowth of a local need and should be so administered that the results will be satisfying to the participants."¹ In many schools the regular weekly assembly is the accepted procedure. Though the principal may believe it is indispensable from the administrative point of view, he may have failed to convince both teachers and pupils of its necessity. Perhaps the school has just moved into a new building or perhaps it has just been established. In any case, what is the relation of the adviser to the assembly as an extracurricular activity? We believe her task to be a fourfold one: (1) she must sell the assembly idea to both teachers and pupils and see that it is worked out gradually; (2) she must arrange for an assembly committee which will plan and have charge of a program for the year; (3) she can advise in the matters of pupil participation and teacher responsibility; (4) she can assist

in definite ways to encourage proper behavior attitudes.

First, she should sell the assembly idea to the faculty. This can best be done by surveying local needs, by taking definite local problems such as school spirit which relates to the assembly, and by asking nonsympathetic faculty members to work on the problem. The adviser can do much in providing reading matter and bibliographies on the subject. After reports and discussion in faculty meeting, definite conclusions should be reached as to the best method of arousing interest in the student body. Probable means are through the student council, school publications, the homeroom, or by a visitation of other school assemblies. The logical organizations for carrying out the program would be the homeroom and the student council where suggestions for meeting the local needs could be discussed. When the student council is sufficiently convinced, it might arrange for a demonstration assembly.

Second, the adviser should delegate the responsibility of programs to a standing committee, the organization of which may vary. A suggested committee might be composed of three or more students, one of

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whom should represent the student council, and two or more faculty members, preferably the dramatic and music teachers. The adviser may suggest the duties of the committee, but the best assemblies will grow out of local needs as seen by the committee.

For the purpose of guidance, the adviser must have definite objectives such as the following which she can suggest to the committee. "Every assembly program must have (1) definiteness of purpose, (2) adaptation to the group, (3) principle of communication, (4) principle of appropriateness."²

Too often the program is uninteresting and is a waste of time because there is no definite purpose, hence no unity; because the program is on the teacher, not the pupil level; or because the program was not harmoniously worked out.

The duties of the assembly committee may include the arranging of a yearly program which should articulate with special celebrations and important issues of the day. "It is desirable to schedule events weeks or months in advance in order that all who participate may have ample time to make themselves ready."³ The committee should also leave a few open dates that the adviser may use worth-while imported talent occasionally. Before the schedule is made out, clubs and activities may hand to the committee chairman preferential dates which will be carefully considered. The adviser can supply the committee with suggested programs. We would suggest that a schedule be made for the principal or adviser's office, for the student council room, and for the extracurricular bulletin board showing the date, the theme, the activity in charge, the student and faculty chairmen.

Third, the adviser can assist the committee in the limitation of pupil participa-

tion. By reference to personnel cards in her office, or by suggesting an "assembly talent sheet" to be worked out through the homeroom, a survey of the interest and talents of the student body can be made. This information should be filed in the adviser's office for the use of the various committees, and it should prove helpful to both in varying the programs and in varying the personnel. Rugg says, "Growth takes place in learning to do better the things one needs to do anyway and in moving up the scale from so scientifically determined deficiencies to determined standards in so far as one's ability and interest permit one to move."⁴ We see that pupil participation must be limited to achieve the primary purpose of the assembly, that of unifying the school.

Such a program was carried out this past year (1930-1931) in the senior high school at Manhattan, Kansas. At the close of the school year, there were only thirty of the five hundred and sixty-five students enrolled who had not participated in the assembly program.⁵ Some schools require that all assembly programs be passed upon by the faculty chairman and checked with the record of past participants in the adviser's office. In such a procedure the adviser can suggest minor parts for the backward students. The adviser should be concerned not only with pupil participation for the assembly program but for the teacher responsibility as well. Such sponsorship should be equally distributed among the members of the faculty.

Again, the adviser can suggest that some of the programs be exploratory in nature to facilitate the adjustment of the new student to both the curricular and the extracurricular activities. Thus the student can judge better where he would enlist his interests. Millard found in a survey of forty-

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nine schools that no particular attempt was being made to develop programs where the incoming boy or girl may have the opportunity to develop through brief participation in interesting activities available. This is a challenging offer to those who plan the assembly programs.⁸

Not only must the committee plan the program, arrange a calendar, and limit pupil participation, but it must set and maintain high standards for each program. Ford suggests that programs must be (1) interesting, (2) informational, (3) inspirational.⁹ These standards, if we understand the modern adolescent, are hard to enforce. It may be necessary at first for both the faculty chairman and the adviser to suggest program changes, but as the year progresses, students should be able to evaluate their own programs with increasing facility. If it is possible, the adviser might arrange for awards for the best programs of the year, the students evaluating each program on the basis of material, presentation, and value to the school. Such competition will accomplish three things: "It will motivate the programs; it will demand that standards be set; it will enlist the interest of the entire school."¹⁰ Standards of appreciation can be developed in the audience through participation in ceremonials on special occasions such as Christmas or Memorial Day. "To make of the assembly a truly educative instrument is not so simple—it calls for the greatest resource and deepest faith in one's institution. Conservation and change cannot always go hand in hand without wise supervision, but with adequate guidance it is quite possible for adolescent boys and girls to learn to give due consideration to the

social inheritance of tradition, and to the social inheritance of flexibility."¹¹

Another relation of the adviser to the assembly lies in the field of administration. Only rarely should she or the principal use this period for the purpose of lecturing or of making announcements. Though she should keep a guiding hand on each program, she should see that the students themselves are the actual participants.

Fourth, the behavior attitudes of students in groups are largely the result of the administration of the assembly. The adviser can greatly facilitate group behavior by the proper seating arrangement of the student body. We would recommend that she assign seats to the students. If possible the youngest classes should be placed near the front, and, if students cannot be grouped according to singing parts, the combined glee clubs should have a prominent central location. Perhaps the homeroom or the council can work out a code of conduct for the assembly. Pringle believes that "if pupils leave high school without ideals of social behavior pretty well crystallized, their conduct on public occasions is likely to be such as to cause them to be misjudged by unconsciously subjecting themselves to criticism."¹² We believe that the assembly, the school community, is the testing ground of student behavior.

No doubt the adviser will be asked to give suggestions for evaluating the assembly programs. We quote McKown's standards as suggestive standards for the assembly program. "A good program will (1) adapt the material to the age of the student; (2) seem as natural as possible; (3) offer variety; (4) give the audience a chance to participate; (5) include good music; (6) be mechanically smooth."¹³

⁸ Cecil Millard, *The Organization and Administration of Extra-Curricular Activities*, p. 17.

⁹ R. E. Ford, "The High School Assembly Program," *School and Community*, XVI, December 1930, p. 564.

¹⁰ H. C. McKown, "Setting Standards for High School Assemblies," *JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE*, IV, January 1930, p. 276.

¹¹ Philip W. L. Cox, *Creative School Control*, p. 184.

¹² R. W. Pringle, *Adolescence and High School Problems*, p. 315.

¹³ Harry McKown, *Assembly and Auditorium Activities*, p. 61.

THE ADVISER AND THE ASSEMBLY

In summary let us say that the functions of the adviser in relation to the assembly are:

1. To sell the assembly idea to faculty and students
2. To make suggestions to the assembly committee regarding objectives, pupil participation and teacher responsibility, nature and standards of a good program
3. To foster good group behavior attitudes
4. To suggest standards for evaluating programs presented

In addition we feel that this program is a composite ideal, parts of which will have to be adapted to local needs.

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A STATISTICAL PREDICTION OF HIGH-SCHOOL SUCCESS FOR PURPOSES OF EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE¹

GEORGE E. TOZER

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Tozer is superintendent of the Windsor, Colorado, Public School. In this article the author summarizes a statistical survey of various factors contributing to high-school success and indicates possible data for use in educational guidance.*

E.U.R.

The young people of America today are entering the high schools in increasing numbers. They differ widely in general ability and accomplishment. Many of them discover after a period of trial, error, and even failure that they cannot do certain kinds of work offered by these institutions. School administrators and teachers have not assumed responsibility for guiding them scientifically.

"In spite of the growing diversity of educational opportunity, children are expected to plan their educational careers in consultation with parents who are frequently more ignorant of the issues involved than are the children themselves."² Students should not be allowed to flounder along in high-school work but should be directed into courses with attainable goals for them. The greater the range of selection of subjects and courses, the greater is the need for guidance in making the proper selection.

Who should be advised to take the academic course leading to full college entrance and who should be directed into other lines of work? Cumulative records on these individuals are very meager at present in most school systems, especially of the smaller type. Marks of individual teachers are very unreliable. Some other method must be used to measure these young people. This new means must take into consideration all the factors which contribute to high-school success and measure the amount of each factor

present in these high-school entrants for the purpose of predicting what they will probably be able to do with the average high-school subject.

"We have not increased our guidance facilities as rapidly as we have increased the complexity of the educational maze through which an ever increasing number of children are trying to pass, and as a consequence, numbers of children are on the wrong path, are losing sight of their goals, and the result is waste."³

We should be able to foresee the course each child ought to pursue. Accurate measuring devices which may be used to predict the possible success or failure of a student to do the regular academic high-school course are needed.

We should not only recognize failure but prevent it as well. Scientific guidance is one of the means for conserving the values now lost. Guessing methods, vague impressions, personal opinions, and biased judgments have no place in the solution of this problem. More objective methods of approach are desirable.

We should know when the student takes up the subjects in the academic course whether he has the native ability required to carry him through successfully, whether his school habits are such as are needed to do the work required for preparation to enter college, and whether his special interests are in accord with such a course.

"It is desirable that college aptitude be

¹ Based upon a more extended master of arts thesis, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado, June 1929. Reprinted from *The Teachers Journal and Abstract*.

² John M. Brewer, *Studies in Educational and Vocational Guidance* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1926), p. 3.

³ J. B. Sears, *The School Survey* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925), p. 323.

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discovered not at the end of the high-school course but in the junior high school."⁴

There seems to be no reason why this cannot be done providing the methods of predicting are objective, scientific, and reliable.

High-school achievement probabilities must be visualized more accurately when the student enters and thereby decrease to a minimum the chances of failure by directing him into work consonant with his ability and interest.

Many factors seem to enter into the school success of students. Sears⁵ mentions general mentality, special abilities, interests, physique, social and moral capacity, native language, home conditions, race traditions, home occupation, and social and economic status of the family. Proctor⁶ adds previous training, kind of teaching, health, character traits, vocational ambition, and personal disposition. Viteles⁷ includes appearance, experience, and temperament.

The writer maintains that high-school achievement of a student in the academic curriculum may be predicted by measuring the amount of possession of certain factors which tend to determine such success.

In determining some of the factors which contribute to high-school success and the amount of weight each should have, a number of tests and measures were applied to the 132 students in grades 9 to 12 in Windsor, Colorado, High School during the school year 1927-1928. These included the following: (1) Terman's Group Test of Mental Ability, Form A; (2) Cross English Test, Form A; (3) Stenquist's Mechanical

Aptitude Test; (4) standardized tests in high-school subjects, where available; (5) Sims Socio-Economic Status Rating, Form C; (6) The New York Rating Scale For School Habits; and (7) physical examination by local doctors.

A question blank was sent to parents in order to ascertain their plans and ambitions for the student and to learn more about the student's interests, habits, and personal traits.

While the information received from the physical examination and question blank was valuable from the case-study viewpoint, it was found difficult to include it within the limits of this study and it was therefore omitted. Special ability, personal traits, health, parents' plans, and the like are valuable factors to know in making a case study of the individual where unique and particular information is desired about the student, but for a statistical study, the more general and universal traits are wanted. Both methods of approach to the problem are necessary in order to make guidance really scientific.

High-school achievement was measured for this study by the score obtained by averaging the teachers' grades in all full-time subjects which the student had taken during the time he had been in high school. In cases where the student had failed in a subject and repeated, making a passing mark, the failing grade only was used in determining the high-school average for that individual.

While a number of studies seem to indicate that marks of individual teachers are unreliable, it is thought that the average of a number of teachers' grades in a number of different subjects reflects the achievement quite accurately.⁸

It is easily seen that the seniors and jun-

⁴ J. B. Johnston, "Vocational and Educational Guidance in the High School and Its Relation to Higher Education," *The Vocational Guidance Magazine*, VII, October 1928, pp. 15-25.

⁵ J. B. Sears, *op cit.*, p. 330.

⁶ W. M. Proctor, *Education and Vocational Guidance* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925), p. 42.

⁷ Morris S. Viteles, "The Clinical Approach in Vocational Guidance," *The Vocational Guidance Magazine*, VII, October 1918, pp. 1-9.

⁸ Howard J. Barker, "The Significance of Teachers' Marks," *Journal of Educational Research*, XVI, November 1927, pp. 271-284.

iors are measured more accurately than the sophomores and freshmen by this method. For this reason, a special study was made of both groups.

The students were rated in school habits by those teachers who had had them in some high-school subject. A total score for each student was obtained by first taking the average of all ratings from 0 to 10 for each trait and then dividing the sum of these averages by nine, the number of traits in the scale.

Coefficients of correlation between the various factors were computed by the product-moment method. The results of these calculations are shown in Tables I and II.

viewed in another light for the best interpretation of its value. There is often a "halo" effect present in the relationship between grades and school habits. A teacher may pass a student on effort, attention, and the like, without the student knowing much about the subject studied. Teachers' marks often do not represent actual scholastic attainment. If school grades include these other elements, then too much weight will be given these things in any regression equation for predicting real achievement.

There also seems to be some intelligence in school habits which would tend to make the correlation between grades and school habits too high. Most of the variables have

TABLE I

COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN THE FACTORS. AVERAGE HIGH-SCHOOL GRADES (X-1), SCORES ON TERMAN'S GROUP TEST OF MENTAL ABILITY (X-2), CROSS ENGLISH TEST SCORES (X-3), SIMS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS RATINGS (X-4), AND RATINGS FOR SCHOOL HABITS (X-5), WITH MEANS (M) AND SIGMAS OF DISTRIBUTIONS (S) FOR 76 SOPHOMORES AND FRESHMEN IN WINDSOR, COLORADO, HIGH SCHOOL IN 1927-1928.

	X-1	X-2	X-3	X-4	X-5
X-1		.7466 ± .034	.6323 ± .046	.0989 ± .076	.8071 ± .027
X-2			.6649 ± .043	.2314 ± .004	.5648 ± .052
X-3				.1005 ± .076	.6061 ± .042
X-4					.0640 ± .077
M	82.05	104.74	125.22	6.79	5.84
S	6.36	33.40	16.72	1.17	1.85

The distributions of scores were quite normal and were such as to show that the groups were normal mentally. The socio-economic status of the homes was somewhat above the norm established for the scale.

The correlation of .7466 between average high-school grades and mental-test scores is rather high and would seem to indicate that intelligence has some part in determining high-school achievement, but it is not high enough to rely upon alone to predict any individual student's success or failure in high-school work.

The correlation of .8071 between grades and school habits indicates the importance of good school habits to successful school work. However, this correlation needs to be

a reciprocal influence upon each other and in the partialing out process some element is given too much or too little weight.

The correlation of .0989 with a probable error of .076 seems to show that there is practically no relation between average school grades and the socio-economic status of the home, as measured by Sims Socio-Economic Rating Scale.

The correlation of .5648 between intelligence and school habits is significant and tends to show that the brighter pupil more often has better school habits than the dull one.

The results shown in Table II for the senior-junior group reveal about the same facts as those in Table I.

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Coefficients of correlation between average school grades and scores on Stenquist's Mechanical Aptitude Test were computed for each group. There was a correlation of .0638 with a probable error of .077 found for the sophomore-freshmen group and $.1149 \pm .089$ for the senior-junior group. This shows no real relationship between special ability and the ability to do the work in the academic curriculum of the high school.

A method of solving multiple correlation problems by Tolley and Ezekiel⁹ has been modified by Dr. Garret¹⁰ to adapt it better to correlation problems in psychology and education. Because of its highly statistical

and one-half times as much influence on grades as does intelligence. School habits and intelligence account for about 78 per cent of the grades of sophomores and freshmen and about 83 per cent of the grades of seniors and juniors.

If the possession of desirable school habits, attitudes, or character traits is the largest determining factor for high-school achievement, then the development of these things becomes a matter of vital concern to the elementary and high-school teacher.

The writer wishes to recommend the keeping of cumulative records on each child from the time he enters the elementary school to graduation from high school for

TABLE II

COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN THE FACTORS. AVERAGE HIGH-SCHOOL GRADES (X-1), SCORES ON TERMAN'S GROUP TEST OF MENTAL ABILITY (X-2), SCORES ON CROSS ENGLISH TEST (X-3), SIM'S SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS RATINGS (X-4), AND RATINGS FOR SCHOOL HABITS (X-5), WITH MEANS (M), AND SIGMAS (S) FOR EACH DISTRIBUTION FOR 56 SENIORS AND JUNIORS IN WINDSOR, COLORADO, HIGH SCHOOL IN 1927-1928.

	X-1	X-2	X-3	X-4	X-5
X-1		.6457 \pm .053	.6957 \pm .047	.2180 \pm .080	.8797 \pm .020
X-2			.6451 \pm .052	.3607 \pm .078	.5238 \pm .065
X-3				.3183 \pm .081	.6407 \pm .053
X-4					.2520 \pm .084
M	83.82	125.00	128.84	6.589	6.27
S	5.764	32.89	20.185	1.232	1.964

nature, the writer will omit the solution of the regression equations used for prediction of the pupil's success in high school by use of the data obtained from the tests and measurements.

The results showed that the scores on the Cross English Test had practically no additional influence on grades in high school, socio-economic status had a slight negative effect, and that school habits have about one

predictive and guidance purposes. These records should contain such significant facts as achievement, mentality, interests, school habits, personal traits, health, home conditions, special ability, and character. Such cumulative information about pupils would be more accurate and vital for use in predicting high-school success than that obtained from any one period in the life of the student. These data are desirable for purposes of handling the student more rationally as he enters upon advanced work. With this information about students, the writer feels that the conscientious teacher will be encouraged to tackle the many perplexing problems involved in educational guidance.

⁹ H. R. Tolley and M. J. B. Ezekiel, "A Method of Handling Multiple Correlation Problems," *Journal of American Statistical Association*, XVIII, December 1923, pp. 993-1003.

¹⁰ Henry E. Garrett, "A Modification of Tolley and Ezekiel's Method of Handling Multiple Correlation Problems," *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, XIX, January 1928, pp. 45-49.

THE IDEAL PRINCIPAL FOR A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL¹

DORA B. CRAIG

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Miss Craig, of Seattle, brings comfort to junior-high-school principals. "While recognizing the fact that junior-high-school principals are merely human beings and, as such, subject to the weaknesses of human beings, each group of teachers seemed to feel that their principal is the most satisfactory one in the corps."*

F.E.L.

The following article presupposes a desire on the part of all persons for growth and development. It also assumes that the reader is just now very much interested in the development and growth of junior high schools and in those who are responsible for their administration.

Through self-expression, one may attain self-development. The striving to gain the proportions of an ideal personality through self-expression is the spirit from which growth is realized. Before one can emulate the character of an ideal personality, one must have before him a distinct image of this person.

Whence comes one's image of the ideal? Obviously it is a composite picture constructed from many sources, among which are observations, readings, recognition of needs within one's self, and the noting of traits of character which have served humanity best.

One's ideal character today, however, may not be the ideal of tomorrow. That is as it should be. As one's horizon widens, his knowledge and understanding grow and his concept of the ideal broadens and changes. Hence, the ideal is never realized, for when the pattern is reached, it is no longer the ideal. That is ever something finer towards which one strives. All human life must necessarily be that of growing, expanding personalities in this ever growing, ever changing universe. Any crystallization of life which precludes this growth is stultifying to progress.

¹ Written from the questionnaire submitted to teachers of the four junior high schools of Seattle.

In the hope that an evaluation of the leaders in the junior high schools would be helpful to all who entered into the study as well as suggestive at least to all who read the results of the investigation, a study of an ideal principal, at our present level of understanding, was made in the Seattle junior high schools. A questionnaire was sent to the teachers in the junior high schools asking them to list traits of character, abilities, and skills in their principals which they had found most helpful in aiding them to carry on effectively in their work, and to take note of anything which they felt may have retarded their own development and the development of those in their charge. The results were compiled and the article follows.

A very significant finding emerged early in the checking of the questionnaires which should be comforting both to principals and teachers. While recognizing the fact that junior-high-school principals are merely human beings and, as such, subject to the weaknesses of human beings, each group of teachers seemed to feel that their principal is the most satisfactory one in the corps.

The study of the principals is taken up under four heads: (1) personality, (2) educational qualifications, (3) social force, and (4) administrative ability.

Under personality is discussed personal appearance, voice habits, dynamic power, and disposition.

Educational standing takes up general knowledge and knowledge of theory and practice of teaching.

Social force deals with principal-com-

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munity, principal-teacher, and principal-pupil relationships.

Under administrative ability is considered the principal's skill in organization and his ability to manage the school plant that all may carry forward the educational aims of the junior high schools.

PERSONALITY

In the matter of appearance, the teachers demand that their ideal principal be well groomed, neat, a conservative dresser, dignified, and healthy in appearance, with a manner decidedly not of the earthworm variety. He should have a voice well modulated, full and quiet and distinctly under control at all times.

He should have the qualities of leadership highly developed, his enthusiasms should accomplish results without arousing resentment. He should be an inspirational visitor in classrooms and should not feel that teacher accomplishment depends primarily upon pressure exerted by him. He should not be explosive in his power nor have the attitude of being so rushed that he has only a minute for the teacher's needs. No matter if he considers her particular problem unimportant, it is not so to her, or she would never have bothered to bring the matter to him. The teachers demand that he use his authority intelligently, that he develop the attitude of a benevolent despot. Benevolence and a measure of despotism they deem necessary in an inspirational leader. He should be able to delegate authority and yet retain it. If he lets delegated authority slip through his hands entirely, it may become a destructive force in the school. He should be something of an idealist, able to visualize the future in terms of past experience, but his idealism must have a generous sprinkling of hard-headed, practical sense in order to deal with the immediate problem of everyday adolescent boys and girls. His dynamic power should in no way

force snap judgments but when he has formed his judgments independently, he should have confidence and power to carry them out.

He should be optimistic but not to the extent of refusing to recognize diseased spots when faced with them. He should be willing to hold the mirror to a disagreeable situation, observe it, analyze it, and, after diagnosis, should put into operation corrective measures to bring about a healthy condition. He should have a frank, honest attitude towards people and situations. He should have a sense of humor, but must be willing to see the seriousness of situations when occasion demands it.

EDUCATION

In education, junior-high-school teachers want the ideal principal to have more than school education. They want him to have a general culture, a breadth of information, and a sense of values. In theory and practice of teaching they ask that he be abreast of the times and be improving professionally; that he be scientific in his approach to educational problems but conservative enough that he will not feel that any one method has all the worth-while points in education.

SOCIAL FORCE

He should, of course, be recognized as the educational leader among those whose children he guides, but more than that he should be looked up to as one of the progressive, up-to-date men in civic and community affairs. He should have an equal interest in the welfare of all sections of his community, and therefore, should not cater to any one group. His contact with patrons should be pleasant and harmonious where that is possible but if the good of the whole is threatened he should be willing to stand or fall fighting for a principle.

He should be able to regard the teacher as a part of the social situation and not

merely a cog in the wheel of school machinery. He should feel that a teacher's suggestions for bettering conditions is not one of criticism of present administration, but that the suggestion is motivated by an earnest desire to be of assistance in carrying out the educational objectives. He should not be unduly influenced by any vigorous, forceful individual or group of individuals in his corps. He should establish office hours or at least arrange to be accessible to teachers for some time each day; otherwise many problems needing immediate attention may drag on and become festering sores in the life of the school. Teachers should find him approachable and they should feel free to talk over their own weaknesses or failures in classroom procedure. He should be able to give helpful and constructive criticism, and should have the ability to encourage and inspire teacher growth. Under his guidance, a teacher should be able to see her work in relation to the other work of the building, but she should be permitted to maintain confidence in herself by receiving respect for her methods if they get desired results.

The principal should inspire the confidence and wholesome respect of the students. They should look upon him as their friend and adviser who is demanding their best. He should be willing to make use of student responsibility where possible, but students should feel him as an authority standing by.

ADMINISTRATIVE ABILITY

Teachers demand that the ideal principal be a close, quick organizer, that he be able to keep the educational plant cleared for the unobstructed operation of all; that he plan his work so he will not be submerged in the details of carrying out his plans. He should keep himself informed on the work done in each department in order that it may be properly coordinated and to some extent unified, but he should not hamper the work by too much direction and supervision. He should be able in a measure to anticipate and ward off possible difficulties. His building should show a decrease in recurrence of undesirable situations. He should have a definite building policy as to discipline as well as to organization and instruction, and he should make the substance of his assistance in disciplinary cases more than a request that the teacher adjust her personality to that of the child.

The foregoing article shows that the teachers have entered into this study seriously and have given the best suggestions which they have according to their present understanding of the problem.

We realize that some things which are possibly significant to those higher up have not been touched upon but this is an article dealing with the business of a principal as seen by the teacher and is offered in the spirit of helpful cooperation.

THE ORIENTATION OR GROUP-GUIDANCE PROGRAM

CHARLES E. NEVILLE

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Neville, the principal of Warren G. Harding Junior High School of Philadelphia, has reported a group-guidance program which conforms to a suggestion made in an earlier number of the CLEARING HOUSE.*

F.E.L.

Dr. Richard Allen in an article in the September 1930 issue of the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE differen-

tiates three phases of guidance in the public schools. These are personnel and records, orientation or group guidance, and individual

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counseling and adjustment. In the same issue an article headed "A Conference Report" contains the statement that "in the junior high school the principal task is that of orientation and group guidance."

The faculty of the Harding Junior School in Philadelphia recognized this task and some time ago set about the organization of a program for the performance of this piece of work. A committee of teachers working with the principal of the school was asked to devise a plan to make our group guidance as adequate as possible. There are certain limitations imposed upon the development of such a program by the prescribed organization, time allotment, and teacher allotment

justment of the pupil to his school life and his development physically, socially, ethically, intellectually, civically, and avocationally along the lines most desirable for him and for the social group of which he is a part." If this seems a restatement of the "Cardinal Principles" it has, at any rate, served to guide the development of our program and to make the teachers conscious of the extent of their task.

With this aim before us our next step was the budgeting of the available time, approximately eighteen forty-five minute periods per semester, among the various elements of guidance in our program. This was accomplished by the following table

TIME DIVISION

Type of Guidance	Periods per Semester						Total
	7A	7B	8A	8B	9A	9B	
Adjustment	5	3	2	3	3	2	18
Vocational	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Health	3	3	3	3	3	3	18
Civic	3	3	3	3	3	3	18
Social and ethical	2	2	1	2	3	3	13
Educational	2	3	5	3	2	3	18
Avocational	2	3	3	3	3	3	17
Total	18	18	18	18	18	18	108

of this school which is one of twenty in the city. Each school is permitted to have one counselor, who teaches part of the time in some regular subject of instruction. The time allotment includes one forty-five minute period per week for guidance instruction to be carried on by the homeroom teachers. Since many of these teachers have had no adequate training or experience as expert advisers or guidance leaders, any guidance program to be effective must be very definite and arranged in considerable detail.

The first step was the clear statement of the goal of our group guidance. This statement was finally developed as follows: "The aim of group guidance is the successful ad-

justment of the pupil to his school life and his development physically, socially, ethically, intellectually, civically, and avocationally along the lines most desirable for him and for the social group of which he is a part."

The program which has now been in operation for over a year in the Harding school was developed topically by using the types of guidance listed in the time division as main headings. The adjustment guidance was further divided into three parts: adjustment to the school building and equipment, adjustment to the school's regulations, and adjustment to the school's activities. In the first group are studied locations of classrooms, lunchrooms, auditorium, gymnasium, etc.; necessary equipment, notebooks, gym suits, and cooking uniforms; and the proper handling of loaned material, textbooks, and apparatus. The regulations group includes

a study of corridor traffic rules, auditorium manners, student's responsibility for self-control, relations to student officers and to school counselor, and such local and sometimes temporary rules as are necessary from time to time. In the activities group are covered the club program with the method of selecting clubs, the plan of student participation in school control, and the student publications, including a quarterly magazine and a weekly newspaper.

The second phase, vocational guidance, consists merely of sufficient occupational information for those students who are leaving school to be employed, as the consensus of the committee's belief is that vocational guidance properly belongs to the senior-high-school level. A somewhat more detailed study of occupations is made in connection with course choosing under the head of educational guidance.

As health education is one of the regular courses in the curriculum, our health guidance is somewhat incidental, becoming rather an effort at enrichment and follow-up of the regular work than a matter of actual instruction.

The work in civic guidance is divided into three parts: the development and study of a code of good school citizenship, instruction in the qualities and duties of good student officers, with actual election of such officers for participation in school control, and the development of the ideals of good United States citizenship with comparison showing the great similarity of these ideals to those of previously studied school-citizenship code. This plan is based on Dr. Franklin Bobbitt's declaration that a life of good citizenship in school will carry over into a continuous life of good adult citizenship.

Under the heading of social and ethical guidance our program attempts to develop in the students realization of and right attitudes towards six of what might be called social virtues. These include courtesy, co-

operation, service, honesty, self-reliance, and proper personal appearance. Courtesy includes instruction in courtesy in school, classrooms, assembly, etc.; courtesy at home and on the street; courtesy in public assemblies; and courtesy in social relations, involving introductions, host and guest relationship, and social correspondence. Co-operation includes various school activities in classrooms, assemblies, gymnasium, clubs, school projects, and programs to be publicly presented. Instruction is given in co-operation with faculty, with student officers, and with fellow students. The ideal of service is developed in such a way as to include loyalty, school spirit, and willingness to work for group benefit. Honesty includes not only the ordinary meaning of that term but also the ideal of self-respect. The instruction in self-reliance is intended to develop poise and independence of effort in any attempted task or project. Under the heading of proper personal appearance are developed the three ideals of cleanliness, neatness, and fitness of both body and clothing.

The sixth phase of group guidance in our program, educational guidance, is divided into two distinct parts. For our lower grades we have outlined a program which is really supervised study. By using a number of periods rostered for supervised study, we secure some additional time for this guidance instruction, without which it would be impossible. This first part of educational guidance includes a lesson on the care and use of the textbook, a lesson on how to make an outline, a lesson on the assignment book, and six lessons on the general topic, "How to Study." "How to study" is divided as follows: preparing a lesson at home, how to study a history lesson, how to prepare a lesson in mathematics, how to make a book review, how to study a science assignment, and how to prepare a foreign-language lesson. All of these lessons are made out in detail with each step clearly indicated in the

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outline, so that the guidance teacher may easily give instruction in study methods outside of her particular field of instruction.

The second part of educational guidance for use in the upper grades consists of information for students who need to select courses after differentiation has begun. There is an analysis of the aims and content of the various courses offered in our junior high school with their continuation in senior high; a study of the requirements for completion of each course and statements of the occupations to which each course may lead. Naturally, there is some overlapping of the two parts of educational guidance as instruction or review in "how to study" is sometimes sadly needed by students in the upper grades.

The last phase of orientation, avocational guidance, refers to instruction in the wise

use of leisure. It consists of discussions of four types of recreation, outdoor sports and clubs, music either as listener or participant, reading, and amusements such as moving pictures or the theater.

Five of these seven phases of group guidance, not including vocational or health guidance, have been organized in considerable detail into topical outline form and placed in the hands of every teacher in the school, nonadvisers as well as advisers, so that all may know what is being done whether actually using the material or not.

As this program has been completely in use for less than a full year it is as yet too early to determine what its effects upon the work and attitudes of our students may be, but it has been enthusiastically received by both faculty and students, and seems to promise excellent results.

CHARACTER TRAINING WITHOUT THE AID OF EXTRINSIC DEVICES

JESSE G. FOX

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Fox, the principal of Patrick Henry Junior High School of New York City, wants character developed by means of normal, natural activities. This seems to be the only way it can be developed.

F.E.L.

Happily we have progressed far from the conception that character is something to be aroused or imposed by chastisement of evil spirits. Yet before we condemn even such a puritanic conception as this, we must have regard for the preceding periods of history involving the fall of the Roman Empire and the retrogression of human conduct; the dark ages; and rebirth of knowledge, faith, and forward-looking conduct. On the other hand, the idea still persists that there are a few good characters and many more bad ones, and that the great majority are indifferent or colorless in character. Yet character is neither good, bad, nor colorless. Character is social or unsocial in so far as it meets and reflects the social standards of the

time. Character, therefore, is not a fixed or stable matter. Some of the illustrious characters of past history are at times held up to criticism or even ridicule because of the possession of certain traits considered undesirable now; or the discussion of such traits of illustrious characters is taboo today. Such ridicule and such taboo of discussions are based upon lack of realization of varying social standards and human conduct in relation thereto.

The crutch, an artificial aid in learning, was long in vogue. Arithmetic, spelling, reading, etc., abounded in crutches. But the movement away from their use was rapid as soon as there was realization that such crutches represented habits or practices not

in social use, habits to be unlearned later. Do not some so-called schemes of character training involving elaborate forms represent similar crutches? Do they not involve habits or practice later to be unlearned by reason of the abnormal conditions—abnormal from a socially effective standpoint—surrounding their acquisition?

The doctrine of formal discipline was for a considerable period a creed in curriculum construction. It represented a criterion for determining the inclusion of subject-matter into the course of study. It dominated every field of education. The doctrine has been attacked from many angles and its potency reduced to practically one situation. There have been recommended for use in schools many schemes denominated as follows: school city, school state, school republic, etc. One of the arguments advanced for the adoption of any of these schemes is that it stimulates character acquisition. This argument rests upon an implied belief in the doctrine of formal discipline. Even assuming that any such scheme referred to immediately above may result in the development of self-control in certain individual pupils coming within the action of the pupil administration, what reason is there to believe that there will be a carryover to the social situations of the larger life? Certainly there is very little similarity of situation to the larger social life to strengthen such a belief. And is there any carryover to the great majority of pupils who fear to be haled before the pupil tribunal? Is it not true, also, that in the larger life but a very small percentage of the people come in contact with the machinery of government, and that character as far as the great majority of people is concerned is exhibited in their dealings with one another?

Why is character looked upon as something intangible and ethereal? Why is so-called good character conceived as a blessing from heaven and bad character as a

curse? Why are artificial situations and extrinsic means used to arouse character?

Every human being is by nature active. There develops a character phase to this activity. In the larger life, every activity has its character phase. Our relations with our neighbors show respect for their rights, coöperation, etc., or vice versa. Our business dealings show plain dealing, honesty, etc. The character phase of all activity is appraised in terms of approved social standards.

The school is life on a smaller scale. It represents the guidance and development of the normal activity of the pupils. The character phase of activity should develop and be acquired along with the guidance of the activity towards academic ends, vocational ends, etc. There are many implications here. It is worth while detailing the important ones.

1. There must be recognition of the social standards that constitute the measuring stick of characters. These ideals must be brought down to a plane of reality through explanation, demonstration, illustration, etc., with reference to everyday activity. There is need for clear understanding upon the part of the pupil as to what is meant by an honest dealing, a courteous reply, a fair game, respect for the neighbor's house, tolerance towards a friend's religious belief, etc. One could not argue that every standard, every ideal, should be the consideration of every teacher. Rather, one would say that there should be a distribution throughout the school course of the standards or ideals to be acquired, a distribution in terms of the physical maturity, mental age, type of activity of the pupil, etc.

2. There is need, also, of recognition by the teacher—and the development of alertness in the pupils in the matter of recognition of the activity—of the situations to which certain character phases apply. There is involved here a recognition of the specific

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situations and activities in which a particular character phase is to be looked for and is desirable. It represents an analysis of an ideal into the specific habits to be acquired with respect to specific situations before this ideal is approached.

3. Furthermore, there should be a recognition of the fact that all activity tends to recede from the plane of consciousness to the plane of automatism, to leave the mind free to cope with new problems and finer adjustments. Likewise, the character phase tends to follow the same route to automatism. But is it not of great importance and value to him or her who would reach the socially approved goal as to character activity to know how to travel the necessary route? In other words, should not the boy or girl know the steps for arriving at a habit goal—a socially approved habit as an evidence of effective character?

4. Finally, consideration must be given to the fact that activity is developing whether we will or not. The activity is exercised by the individual. The character phase of the activity is acquired by the individual; the responsibility is his. Likewise, his should be the job and obligation of refining the character phase by constant comparison with the approved standards; a work of self-checking and self-appraisal.

It is enlightening to instance typical applications of the principles stated.

1. A survey indicates a general failure to approximate the social standard or ideal of courtesy. The activity of pupils in school in connection with learning generally lacks the approved character phase of courtesy. Interest in and the desirability of acquiring the phase are aroused through divers means.

The meaning of the standard of courtesy is set forth through explanations, through illustrations, through pictures of all kinds, through dramatizations, through personal example, through precept, etc. The implications of courtesy of speech, of politeness, of

dress, of courtesy towards superiors, of politeness towards the handicapped, of courtesy towards one's fellows, of politeness on the field of sport, on the street, in the classroom, in the vehicles of transportation, etc., are brought out.

2. Through coöperation with students during homeroom periods, club periods, council periods, etc., the specific situations of the school in which a character phase of courtesy is desirable are discovered.

What is the desirable type of courtesy during assembly activity? What is the type of courtesy desirable at entrances, at changes, at group movements on stairs and through halls?

What is the desirable type of courtesy in connection with the activity of attire specifically as regards hands, shoes, etc.?

What is the type of character or courtesy desirable in connection with message-delivery service?

What is the type of courtesy desirable in connection with classroom instruction and recitation?

What is the type of courtesy desirable in connection with the use of and respect for property of classmates, for property of public, etc.?

A similar analysis is necessary to reveal the specific situations and the type of courtesy desirable in connection with activities of the street, of the home, of the playground, etc.

3. However, with the need for courtesy established and with the specific knowledge as to the type of courtesy applicable and desirable for the specific situation recognized, what remains to ensure the recurrence of the courtesy phase in connection with the recurrence of the appropriate activity?

Conscious search for normal repetition of the activity and enthusiastic binding of the courtesy phase to the activity are essential. This repetition with attention to necessary details and with avoidance of conflicting

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stimuli of environment whether of things or of persons will lead to necessary automatization.

The avoidance of disturbing stimuli represents a conflict, perhaps, between the memory of a social standard of courtesy and the presence of an example of discourtesy or violation of the social standard. The avoidance depends upon the recognition by the particular individual of the formula for the acquisition of habit, a formula imposed by nature in terms of the inherited nervous mechanism.

4. Yet the acquisition of the various habits of courtesy and the approach cannot go forward blindly, assuming proper initiation and explanation. There must be sufficient and periodic check originally by the teacher guiding the acquisition by the pupil and later by the pupil himself who has willingly assumed the burden because he desires proper adjustment to the social group.

This check will be in terms of and by comparison with renewed demonstrations of courtesy; with examples of courtesy exhibited by teachers and by progressive fellow pupils; and with the examples of courtesy exhibited by effective members of adult social life. The resulting evaluation will indicate how closely each pupil is approximating the social standard of courtesy and whether sufficient repetition and progress are being made to ensure the facile acquisition of the desirable traits of courtesy.

This step of appraisal by those guiding the acquisition of the habits of courtesy must be systematically planned, must be periodic, and this appraisal must be speedily taken over by those seeking to acquire the habits, must become self-appraisal, and must become second nature with them to be most effective.

Cannot a similar analysis and treatment of the ideal of self-control be effected? Cannot a similar analysis and treatment of the ideal of expenditure of leisure time by the

individual for the benefit of the individual in relation to the approved social order be effected? and so on.

There are abundant activities in the junior high school which permit of coördinate and correlative acquisition of approved character traits. Certain typical activities and important character traits possible of arousal are instanced.

1. The entrance and dismissal activity permits of development of self-control, of courtesy, of respect for the rights of others, etc.

2. The assembly activity permits of development of contribution to the group, of coöperation, of courtesy, of self-control, of respect for the opinions of others, of wise use of leisure time, etc.

3. The homeroom and club activities permit of the development of coöperation, of service to the group and to the school, of respect for the opinions of others, of wholesome expenditure of leisure time, etc.

4. The student-council activity permits of the development of mass activity, of group activity, of coöperation, of respect for the rights of others, of self-control, of courtesy, etc.

5. The athletic and publication activities of the junior high school permit of the development of wholesome expenditure of leisure time, of fair play, of respect for the opinions of others, of respect for public property, etc.

6. The learning activities of the school permit of the development of contribution for the benefit of the group, of service to the group, of coöperation, of self-control, of courtesy, of respect for the opinions of others, of wholesome expenditure of leisure time, etc.

Socialization is the keynote of the junior high school. The abundant socialized activities of the junior high school permit of normal, frequent, and varied repetition of appropriate character traits tending to-

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wards their habituation once the trait has been enthusiastically received and correctly demonstrated.

It is regrettable that space does not permit of further detailed discussion to indicate

that character development in correlation with the necessary normal activity of social existence is just as reasonable in the school as in the larger adult life—without the aid of temporary, or fantastic schemes.

MESA UNION HIGH SCHOOL BUDGET PLAN

C. E. SOUTHERN

EDITOR'S NOTE: Any plan which will make more nearly unanimous the pupils' participation in student activities is worthy of consideration. Mr. Southern tells how this has actually been accomplished in his school at Mesa, Arizona.

L.B.

Almost perfect participation from an entire student body has been the result of the budget plan of financing student activities in the Mesa Union High School. Despite the current depression, the financial statement at the end of the year showed satisfactory balances in almost every form of student venture.

Many of our foremost educators have expressed again and again the theory that we are to train for life. Authorities, economists, statistical tables, and the records of business houses will show that great percentages of buying in this age are done on the partial-payment plan. Realizing this, and remembering that we are training for life, a student fee to include all school activities for the year was decided upon. This was to include admission to all athletic contests, admission to all plays, the year's subscription for the annual and for the student newspaper. The amount was set at \$5.70 and this amount was divided into 38 payments at 15 cents each. Under the supervision of student managers, these payments were made in 25 homerooms of the Mesa Union High School each Tuesday morning of the school year. The student opinion is reflected in the fact that more than 400 finished their budget assessments, turning in to the school treasury about \$2,300. This, in a school of slightly more than 500 students,

is very nearly perfect, because of the fact that many brothers and sisters within the school chose to take one budget membership. When one adds to this amount the income from admissions and patronage outside the school, it can be seen that the financial depression has not materially bothered the student body in carrying on its activities.

The budget was apportioned in the following amounts:

Athletics	25 per cent
Plays	25 per cent
Newspaper	15 per cent (biweekly)
Annual	35 per cent

This seems heavily weighted in favor of publications, but this is student income. It is upon student support that publications exist. The revenue derived from outside admissions carries the dramatic and athletic programs in many schools. The splendid co-operation of town merchants has made it possible to divert much of the publication quota of the budget to other activities.

The system of bookkeeping required to handle a project of this sort is very simple. Each homeroom teacher has a pad resembling a large bank deposit slip. As he receives the deposits each Tuesday morning, he records them on this pad. A carbon copy of this list is kept for his record. The original is sent with the money to the student manager. The central record card, which is the

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account of each student, resembles a meal ticket with 38 punches around the edge. For each payment on the homeroom sheet a corresponding number of punches is placed on the central record card. Frequent checks between the homeroom teacher and the central file keep the books in good order. The student is issued a membership ticket entitling him to membership in the Associated Students of the Mesa Union High School. An effort is made to make him realize that he is now a stockholder in a corporation which is carrying on its own business; that its success or failure depends entirely upon his support. Upon his ticket is a sentence which tells him that his privileges within

the organization will be forfeited upon his second consecutive failure to pay his dues. This plan has proved successful. It is no burden upon the student. It gives him the feeling of belonging; of having a definite interest in school affairs. He knows that he is helping to make possible everything the student body is doing. The more students reached, the more efficient any student-activity program becomes. Student activities are valuable in direct comparison to the number of students participating.

This school is proud of the efficiency of her student-activity program made possible to a large degree by the plan described herein.

REQUIRED SUBJECTS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

RICHARD D. ALLEN

EDITOR'S NOTE: A guidance specialist should be expected to believe in guidance but few of these specialists are willing to agree with Dr. Allen that all omnibus or general prescriptions should be abandoned in favor of individual diagnosis and prescription. In my opinion his program is entirely commendable.

F.E.L.

Should there be any required subjects in the senior high school? The educator who can answer this question in the affirmative without a moment's hesitation should seriously consider asking to be retired from active service. He is approaching mental old age. Any person is becoming mentally old when he applies the formula of previous experience to each new problem without making allowance for new facts and conditions as a result of which a different solution may always be possible. He knows that the experiment has been tried and has failed. That is enough for him. The problem is "settled" in his opinion by the application of the formula of previous experience. Eternal mental youth, however, would first look for new factors and conditions that might result in a new and different answer.

During the past decade many progressive school systems have been building the

necessary organization, machinery, and personnel to provide for individualizing education. The ideal has not yet been reached in any system, but certain facilities are now available that were not at hand when President Eliot introduced the elective system in the university and the high schools followed suit. These facilities, and the guidance principles that have been developed in recent years, make possible a wider application of the elective system than has hitherto been possible. Naturally, such applications are possible only in schools that have well-developed guidance programs. Otherwise costly and inexcusable mistakes are sure to be made which may discredit the entire movement. The present scheme, however, has not been without its mistakes.

In order that this important point may be clearly understood, a brief summary will indicate the principles involved and the or-

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ganization that is necessary. The principles may be stated as follows:

1. With adequate continuous records during the elementary grades, with objective measures of intelligence and achievement, and with definite information regarding the home and the available facilities, the continuous long-time planning of each child's education should take the place of a "hand-to-mouth" policy.

2. Such planning must be personal and individual; it cannot be accomplished by group prescription through "courses" devised to meet hypothetical group needs. Individual examinations, diagnosis, and planning must take the place of "educational patent medicines." The day of "shotgun" methods in education is passing.

3. Such planning requires specially selected and trained individuals with proper facilities for (1) personnel records and research, or the study of individual differences of children, (2) individual counseling and adjustment, (3) group counseling to prepare for effective self-guidance, and (4) continuous follow-up of each individual so that results, needs, and conditions may be known by the counselor.

4. An individual conference, with each individual pupil, each term, should be required in all secondary schools. The large expense of secondary education should require such a check-up of progress and of aims, even if a true professional spirit of service to pupils and parents did not require it. Sometimes the public purse puts the public conscience to shame. Parents will not always submit tamely to having their children eliminated as "unfit" from the public schools. They will require that the schools must find out what they *can* do rather than what they *cannot* do, and plan accordingly. Intelligent human engineering must develop a "three- to five-year plan" of education in advance for each child—a plan that makes possible a reasonable measure of success

for each according to his abilities. Such a program is at present within the range of possibility in many schools.

5. Not only can every community afford such a program; no community can afford not to have such facilities. Education is growth. Failure, discouragement, elimination, loss of interest in the subject even if a passing mark is achieved, the cramming of information until the course is passed and can be forgotten, and wrong attitudes that result from *required* subjects—all of these are enemies to education. They stunt growth. They are diseases that handicap true education. They can be overcome only through providing for each child a type of education adapted to his own abilities, needs, interests, and resources. This cannot be achieved by group prescription. It requires an individual child-study department in each secondary school and adequate adjustment facilities.

6. Every child is a problem—a new and different problem, as every parent can testify. The only reason why some children have been designated as "problem children" and others have not is because we do not know enough about those whom we have not been compelled to study individually. It should not be necessary for a child to get into difficulty in order to receive individual attention. Many principals are still thinking of guidance in terms of "problem children" instead of as a service for all children. The latter ideal requires an organized guidance department; no single individual can do the work adequately in a large school.

So much for general guidance principles in secondary schools; now for the guidance organization. Every teacher has her guidance functions as a homeroom teacher and as a subject teacher, and every principal must perform guidance functions that he and only he can perform. But the increase in the size of schools has robbed the prin-

SCREENING THE GUIDANCE FUNCTIONS

Functions that
pass through the
screens can be
performed more
effectively by
others—

Guidance Functions of the Principal

1. Organization of Guidance Program and Department.
2. Selection, Training, and Supervision of Advisers.
3. Supervision of Subject and Homeroom Teachers.
4. Spirit and Morale of the School.
5. Continuous Revision of School Program and Curriculum.
6. Development of Extracurricular Program.
7. Problem Cases Referred by Advisers.

Gauges of Screens

Responsibility for
Administration and
Supervision.

All are
necessary

Guidance Functions of Each Subject Teacher

1. Arouse Interests and Develop Right Attitudes.
2. Stress Occupational Information of the Subject.
3. Arrange Tryout Projects in the Subject.
4. Encourage and Develop Special Abilities.
5. Remedial Instruction in Subject Handicaps.
6. Lead a Club or Activity.
7. Coöperate with Adviser and Homeroom Teachers.

Good Teaching

Interest in Subject,
Interest in Pupils,
Good Subject Mo-
tivation,
Develop Leadership,
Attention to Individ-
ual Differences,
Team Work,
Professional Spirit.

Guidance Functions of Each Home- room Teacher

—Homeroom Teachers Are Also Subject Teachers—

1. Helpful, Friendly, Personal Interest in Each Pupil.
2. Orientation in School Life and Routine.
3. Records, Reports, and Attendance.
4. Develop School Citizenship, Leadership, and Personality.
5. Coöperate with Advisers and Subject Teachers.

Every Teacher's Work

Administrative, So-
cial and Profes-
sional Duties.
Professional Spirit
and Love of
Youth.

Outside Specialists Used by the Advisers

1. Health Services.
2. Attendance and Home Visitors.
3. Psychological and Testing Service.
4. Mental Health Clinic.
5. Placement Office.

Guidance Functions of the Class Advisers

1. Personnel Records and Research in Individual Differences and Adjustments.
2. Individual Counseling and Adjustment.
3. Orientation Instruction—Educational, Vocational, and Social Problems.
4. Follow-Up of All Pupils.
5. Utilization and Coöperation with Special Services.

Tasks Requiring—

Special Personality,
Special Training,
Special Program.
Insuring Time for
Work and Contin-
uity.

The Adviser Performs Only Those Functions
That Cannot Be Performed Effectively
by Others

RICHARD D. ALLEN
LESTER J. SCHLOERS

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cipal of many of his guidance functions because of the crowding in of supervisory and administrative duties. In the same way departmentalization has restricted the effectiveness of some of the guidance functions formerly performed by subject teachers in small schools. Consequently, the tasks that require continuity, special training, and a special kind of person must be left more and more to the class counselor. These tasks may be classified under four headings:

- a) Personnel records and research, or the study of individual differences
- b) Individual counseling and adjustment
- c) Group guidance or group counseling
- d) Follow-up studies

Approved practice combines these functions in the hands of the class counselor who is responsible for all school adjustments of the class in grades 10, 11, and 12, and who carries on follow-up studies at the end of one, three, and five years after graduation.

With such principles and facilities in any senior high school, required courses or required subjects are not only unnecessary; they become definitely undesirable. As long as pupils are required to take certain subjects, their attitudes are almost sure to be wrong—as wrong as the attitudes of many persons towards prohibition and many other forms of compulsion. Children justify cheating in required subjects when they would never think of cheating in subjects that they have elected. Unless pupils have the privilege of electing each subject, they have no means of voicing their protests or lack of interest. Consequently, proper motivation is almost sure to be neglected. The teacher thinks that she does not have to “sell” her subject; she assumes that pupils want to learn when they merely want to pass. There is a difference. It is better psychology to allow the pupil to omit the subject until he is convinced of its value for him. He should then be ready and eager to learn.

Obviously, unwise choices, important omissions, and wiser possible choices should be carefully checked. If the adviser cannot convince the pupil that he should elect a certain subject, perhaps some friend or outside authority may be able to do so. Unless the educational program is the pupil's own choice, taken because he wants it or is convinced that he needs it as a step towards a definite goal, the teacher begins his instruction under a severe handicap of wrong attitudes that are hard to correct. It is much easier and more effective to meet these attitudes before instruction begins than afterward. In fact, it is the most effective way to attack the “get by” attitude, and the practice of “soldiering.”

In actual practice it is entirely possible that pupils may elect the same subjects under such an elective system that they were formerly compelled to take, but their attitudes should be very different. If the reasons for having required subjects were good and sufficient ones, let the ideas prevail because they are right; not right in general, but as applied in each individual case. It has been said that nothing is so strong as an idea. If that is true, why hesitate to put the idea to the test? Requirements result in a static condition; electives in a continually changing and evolving one. Age fears change; youth welcomes it. The essential requirement is that we study the nature and the causes of changing conditions and control change for the better. Care must be taken that changes result in evolution rather than disintegration. With an advisory machinery, adequate to meet the situation, the result of removing the partitions between specialized curricula and of making elective the so-called “required subjects” will be an evolving curriculum to meet changing needs and conditions in the community.

Requirements in the past have resulted in strange situations and their removal may, in turn, result in considerable embarrass-

ment. In one school where expensive shop equipment had been provided and a teacher had been employed on permanent tenure, the subject was required of all tenth-year pupils, thus providing classes for the shop and teacher. When the subject was made elective, only one class was scheduled and other duties had to be assigned to the teacher. In another school a similar condition had existed for over twenty years after it had become impossible to place workers in that particular field. The defense of the principal was that, in view of the capital outlay in equipment and with a teacher on his hands, he had to do something. Shop subjects are not alone in this particular. Investigation has shown that many pupils choose subjects as the "lesser of two evils." In a commercial school, science or one of three modern languages were the only choices offered in the 10B grade. Of 304 pupils, four-fifths of whom were girls and all of whom had studied general science in earlier grades, 271 elected French, Spanish, or Italian. The others, most of whom were boys, chose science. Investigation indicated that the basis of choice in most cases was largely a matter of the easiest way of earning credits for graduation. Most of the girls disliked science and many of the boys did not want to study a foreign language. They had to choose one of the two, and yet the subjects were called "electives." Only about six pupils per year from this school entered colleges that required foreign-language

units. Certainly it would seem that electives should have some relation to the interests, needs, or marketable skills of young people. The entire elective scheme as well as the required subjects need further study. Educators should be constantly on the alert for opportunities to substitute real choices and real interests for mere credits. A real guidance organization greatly facilitates such investigations.

Embarrassment may in some cases be caused in schools in which expensive equipment is not in continuous use; perhaps new uses must be found for it. Occasionally teachers may have to be dropped if there are no classes for them and they cannot be trained or are not already equipped to teach other subjects. But after all, the schools should be run for the pupils rather than for the teachers or for the makers of shop equipment. Education must be a service to children to help them successfully to meet the problems of educational, vocational, and social adjustment in the community. What if numbers in various departments wax and wane, so long as there appear to be good and sufficient reasons in each individual case? Was the child made for the school, or the school for the child? The answers to such questions require courage and devotion to duty on the part of principals, superintendents, and curriculum makers. But there can be only one answer: The educator can serve only one master, and he is the child.

NORTH JUNIOR CITY

A. B. CALDWELL

EDITOR'S NOTE: Should student government follow the stereotyped organization of our municipalities, States, and nation? Or should it evolve a tentative and adaptable pattern set up to meet problems of school control as they arise? Mr. Caldwell, principal of North Junior High School, Winston-Salem, North Carolina, sets forth a successful attempt to superimpose a form. Perhaps some reader will be stimulated to criticize or support his implicit argument. At any rate, the editors welcome both just such concrete applications of hypotheses as Mr. Caldwell's and challenges of them.

P.W.L.C.

North Grammar School was upset. The "student council" was disturbed. Certain teachers were fretful. For six and one-half years their student council had made rules for pupils, had punished offenders, had conducted occasional assemblies, and had indeed created a new school spirit. Teachers, too, had been relieved of all hall duty and playground duty. Now they were told they could not continue as in the past.

North Junior High School was almost completed. In a few months it would be opened. The student body of North Junior would be composed almost entirely of pupils from North Grammar School. Their own district principal was to move his headquarters to the new building and many of the teachers from North Grammar would also move with them. They felt that they should be allowed to continue the same kind of pupil government.

Their principal told them in effect that their form of government had not in the past been based on any type of American government and that in the Junior High whatever form of pupil self-government might be allowed must be copied directly after that of the United States Government, the State of North Carolina Government, or the Government of the City of Winston-Salem. Discussions followed in homerooms, social-science classes, on the playground, and among teachers. Each room selected a representative to confer with the principal so that some kind of plan might be ready. The convention met and decided to copy the city government (much to the delight

of the principal—perhaps he engineered it that way!). Accordingly a committee was appointed to draw up a charter which was eventually signed by the mayor of the City of Winston-Salem, by the city school superintendent, the principal, and the first junior city mayor. It now reposes in the library of the junior high looking very important between its hand-tooled leather backs.

The enclosed organization chart gives a rough idea of the type of organization set up. Every department of the City of Winston-Salem is represented in some way. The board of aldermen have been repeatedly instructed to make as few ordinances as possible. (Perhaps in this respect differing from current practice in most municipalities.) They have been responsible also for certain civic affairs such as an amateur circus, the proceeds of which went towards the making of a historical booklet about former pupils of North Schools. It is quite an honor to be an alderman and the office carries points towards a school monogram as is true with all official positions created by the charter or by themselves. To secure a monogram a pupil must have points in citizenship, scholarship, and athletics according to a scale which they helped to set up.

The city court was presided over by a boy until charges were preferred against him for inefficiency and neglect of duty, whereupon the aldermen tried him, fired him, and elected a girl. The Winston-Salem municipal court was visited and any adult now hearing a case called in the junior city

JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE

court can tell that the solicitor has visited the local court. Sentences vary from jail sentences and service on the grounds, to that of staying away from assemblies. The last is the most severe in the eyes of the pupils.

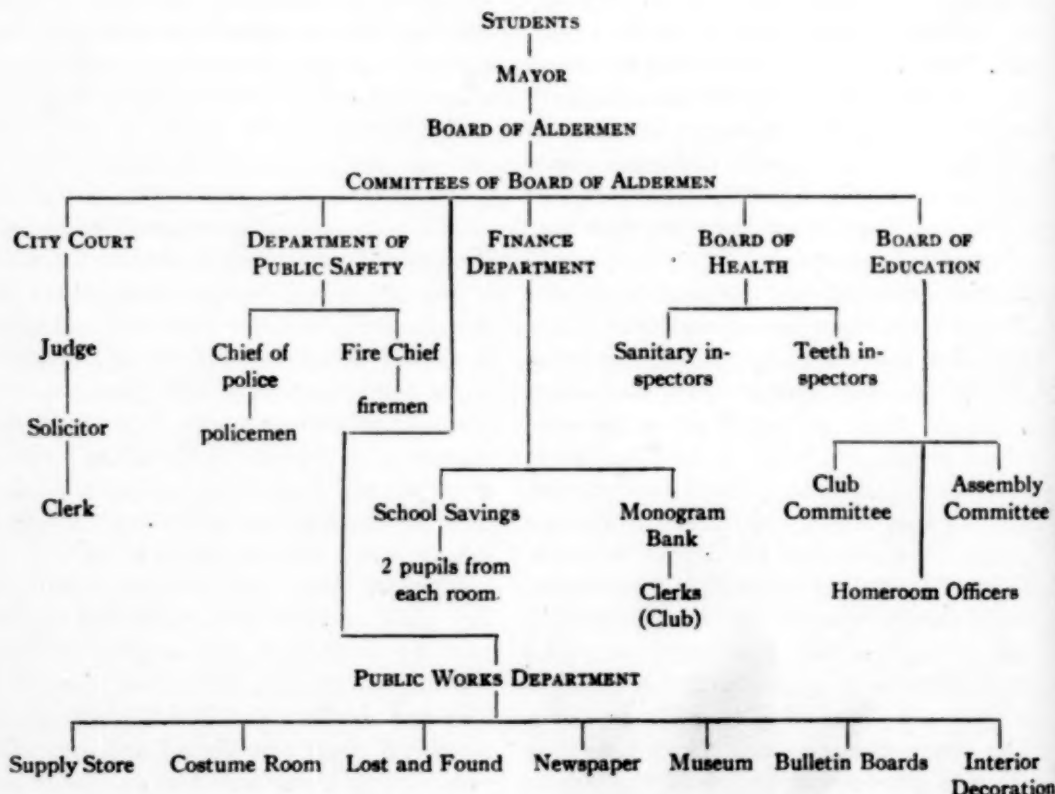
The policemen wear badges cut out of sheet iron in the metal shop and painted in the art room. They are pinned on by means of safety pins soldered on the back. Being constantly cautioned about fairness, there is seldom any difficulty in their enforcement of regulations. It is a serious offense in the eyes of the court to resist arrest.

The public-works department takes care of many things just as important to pupils as streets and sewers are to a citizen of a city—though not exactly parallel. Actual school supplies are sold in the school store

by pupils whose integrity has been proven. Costumes stored in the costume room are sufficient to costume any assembly program, and often much of a public performance, though each public performance must add some to the collection. The school museum is a collection of North Carolina products together with an odd assortment of curios of all kinds. It has a room assigned to it.

The board of education really consists of a number of committees each of which has control of a separate activity such as the chartering of clubs, planning the assembly schedule, making homeroom suggestions, etc.

Each phase of the junior city government has a teacher adviser appointed by the principal. As much as possible pupils are

ORGANIZATION CHART
NORTH JUNIOR CITY

HONESTY AND THE EXCUSE

allowed to make their own decisions, subject to veto by the principal if deemed inadvisable. So far this power has not been exercised.

It is the belief of the faculty that this plan has done more to teach real citizenship than all of the book work, lecturing, and formal civic lessons that might be devised.

Elections, for example, are an intensely interesting affair. When the first "mayor" was to be elected, a nominating committee named three candidates. Pupils were given an opportunity in assembly to nominate others but the process was so new that no one else was nominated. The following morning a committee of pupils waited on the principal asking that another popular student,

Duggins, be added to the list. They were told that the charter allowed for the nomination of another provided a petition were presented with the signatures of ten per cent of the qualified voters. The petition was framed, signed, and returned within a few hours. A vigorous campaign ensued with signs "Vote for Duggins" displayed on blackboards, worn by pupils, and even posted on the bicycle shed. Duggins was elected by an overwhelming majority.

North Junior City is now an established, efficient organization. Had it been attempted without previous experience on the part of pupils, teachers, and community with a simpler form of student government, the outcome might have been different.

HONESTY AND THE EXCUSE

L. PAUL MILLER

EDITOR'S NOTE: Are pupils ever untruthful about absence excuses? Do parents ever misrepresent the truth? Any activity which tends to promote the growth of honesty and self-reliance among pupils is well worth consideration. In this article Mr. Miller describes his own experience with such a movement. Mr. Miller is in charge of vocational guidance, East View Junior High School, White Plains, N.Y. L.B.

Number seven on the list of the Cardinal Principles of Education is ethical character. There may be no significance in the fact that this objective is placed last, but it is interesting to note that some of the practices usually pursued in our schools appear to be very ill adapted to the development of honesty among children. This article is concerned with the discussion of one practice that seems to tend towards the development of dishonesty among pupils. This is the method of dealing with excuses for absence and tardiness. Every school principal knows that a certain amount of dishonesty on the part of pupils goes on continually in connection with the handling of excuses for absences and tardiness: pupils forge the names of their parents; they write and forge excuses for one another. There are doubt-

less other practices of the same nature that could be listed. Principals make every effort to prevent the successful execution of these practices, but in many cases it is impossible to discover the dishonesty. Even if pupils are caught in the act the offense has already been committed and a bad habit has been permitted to begin or to continue its growth.

There are presented here the outlines of two efforts at solution of this problem. The second effort resulted in a method that is not perfect but which may serve to suggest plans that would be effective in special situations.

As principal of a small high school in a Midwestern town, the writer was very seriously disturbed by the excuse problem. He studied the systems used by twenty-five other schools with similar conditions and or-

ganized an elaborate system of checks on absences and tardinesses, a pink slip for this, a blue slip for that, a list of reasons to check here, a blank space there, and lines for the signatures of pupils and parents. He conducted the school in this way for two years. If there was any change, it was for the worse. The system only helped those who wanted to "get by." It was a failure.

What happened to the system the writer does not know, since he left the school in question and became superintendent in a small town. There he found that the high-school principal was spending from thirty minutes to an hour daily writing his approval on excuses, arguing with pupils as to the true reason for their absences, and doing other routine clerical tasks. The faculty held meetings to consider the possibility of handling the problem in a new way. After a semester of study and investigation in which several pupils participated with the faculty, a plan was submitted which received a favorable vote. This plan was carefully and completely explained to the student body and to the parents by means of mimeographed outlines. It was then submitted to the student body who voted their approval.

The plan has now been in operation for more than two years and it is felt by the student body and by the teachers that it has been successful. It has at least enabled the faculty to accomplish four things: first, it has eliminated the opportunity for "getting by" through forgery; second, it has relieved the principal of the necessity of spending so large a fraction of his time in dealing with dilatory pupils; third, it has made it possible for this phase of administration to be handled easily by one clerk; fourth, it has been carried out without requiring the use of any greater amount of time by any teacher.

The plan is based to some extent on the methods of dealing with similar offenses in the industrial and commercial world. What

happens to people who work for remuneration when they are habitually late or absent without reason? Their pay is cut. In college, moreover, their credit is sometimes decreased. On this basis the plan of dealing with tardinesses and absences in school was organized. It has its weaknesses, undoubtedly, but it has at least placed the pupils of that school in the position of accepting responsibility for their own attendance and punctuality and has eliminated the incentive for dishonesty and forgery.

ABSENCES AND TARDINESSES

Absences and tardinesses are to be totaled for "negative credit" which is deducted from the total amount of credit earned as outlined below:

1. Three tardinesses are counted as equivalent to one absence.
2. Each pupil is permitted three "legitimate" absences from any one period (class or study hall) for each semester.
3. Absences in excess of these three are excused only upon the filing in the office of a statement of the illness of the pupil. This statement must be signed by the attending physician.
4. Any absence in excess of the three "legitimate" or those excused for illness is a "cut."
5. "Negative credit" means that an equal amount of positive credit in excess of the sixteen units (required by the State) will be necessary for graduation. When credits are transferred to other schools they are deducted or cut the amount of negative credit charged against them.
6. Final negative credit is recorded at the end of each semester for absences totaled from all periods in excess of the "legitimate" and those excused for illness, as follows: for twelve (12) cuts per semester one-eighth negative unit; for twenty (20) cuts per semester one-fourth negative unit; for twenty-five (25) cuts per semester three-eighths negative unit; above twenty-five (25) cuts per semester requires special action of the faculty.
7. A student cannot be given more negative credit than the amount of positive credit earned in that semester.
8. Class and study-hall periods are considered

HONESTY AND THE EXCUSE

of equal importance; therefore, cuts from either are considered as of equal weight with the other.

9. Pupils who are working or who, for other satisfactory reasons, desire not to be enrolled for certain periods of the day, may submit their application to the faculty for a permanent excuse covering those periods.
10. The grade in any class is not affected by the cuts, but is affected by failure to make up work missed when absent or tardy.

The following are the recorded results of the plan in operation for four semesters:

- First Semester: 7.2 per cent of the students received negative credit
1.6 per cent of the students received more than one-eighth unit of negative credit
- Second Semester: 10.4 per cent of the students received negative credit
4.0 per cent of the students received more than one-eighth unit of negative credit
- Third Semester: 14.4 per cent of the students received negative credit
6.4 per cent of the students received more than one-eighth unit of negative credit
- Fourth Semester: 2.4 per cent of the students received negative credit
1.6 per cent of the students received more than one-eighth unit of negative credit

These figures seem to indicate that the students have benefited from the plan, not only in the sense that there has been a reduction in the amount of tardinesses and absences but also in the sense that they have learned to accept responsibility for their own actions in this phase of school life. The very

significant decrease in the percentage of students receiving negative credit in the fourth semester seemed to indicate a growth on the part of the pupils in understanding the plan and a willingness to adopt it for their own welfare.

Two individual pupils have had as much negative credit charged against them in a single semester as the positive credit which they received in their studies. They received, therefore, no credit for that semester's work. Both these students, however, succeeded, by carrying extra courses, in securing excess credit sufficient to balance their negative credit so that they were enabled to graduate with their class. Up to the present time, in fact, no pupil who received negative credit has failed to do enough extra work to catch up with his class and graduate at the normal time.

The practice of considering three tardinesses equivalent to one absence is probably subject to revision. It does not place a sufficiently severe restriction on tardiness. The present administrator, Mr. O. O. Mcmillin, says, "If I were revising the scheme, I believe I should at the end of the second semester total the cuts for both semesters in order to break up the practice of going to the very border line at the end of one semester and still escaping the penalty."

This seems to provide an opportunity for applying the Seventh Cardinal Principle. Though it has its imperfections, it seems on the whole better adapted to promote the growth of honesty and self-reliance among pupils than does the usual system of handling excuses.

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SCHOOL-NEWS COLUMN

SCHOOL-NEWS COLUMN

EDITED BY S. O. ROREM

At the request of several associate editors and of many readers of the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE, we opened in September a news column containing brief notes of public-school activities throughout the United States. Our readers are invited to report the one most interesting item concerning their school for this column. The column will attempt to use items in full or in part, at some time during the year, according to the choice and judgment of the column-editor. Feel free to offer items for our consideration.

The city schools of Spencer, North Carolina, have recently added the following: full-time librarian, band director, orchestra director, tennis coach, and a club program of activities within the school schedule.

Montclair, New Jersey, Senior High School has successfully provided for entrance of junior-high-school students who have not had the regular course of preparation for high school.

The Junior High Schools of Tampa, Florida, have developed a guidance program which employs all regular classroom teachers as "guidance teachers."

The Jane Addams School of Cleveland, Ohio, employs the Dalton plan in the courses supplied for vocational training of the girls enrolled.

Madison, New Jersey, High School dispensed with the formal type of graduation exercises in June 1931. A pageant, written, staged, and completely directed by the pupils of the school was offered as the substitute program.

The social-science department of Fairbault, Minnesota, vitalizes the work of the pupils by directing their interest towards a carefully established series of objectives.

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(JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE, Vol. IV, page 618.)

The Central High School of Newark, New Jersey, has met the problem of articulation between junior-high and senior-high Latin classes by emphasis upon Latin reading in the junior high school during the eighth and ninth years.

The after-school athletic and recreation activities in the senior high schools of Rochester, New York, have been organized to include a great proportion of the student body in one or more activities.

Uniontown, Pennsylvania, High School employs a club plan as a part of the curricular program. All clubs meet during the daily-activities period of forty-five minutes.

Windsor, Colorado, schools operate six weeks during the summer for some of its pupils, releasing these students six weeks in October during the beet-harvesting season.

Cheyenne High School of Colorado Springs is building much of its curriculum about the fine arts, folk dancing, and specialized activities.

Wheeling, West Virginia, city schools have been working out a coöperative part-time vocational-education program in junior and senior high schools.

Bronxville, New York, public schools report that after five years of experience "we have proved that we can give high-school graduates adequate preparation for the colleges and at the same time make provision for opportunities in fields of creative expression for each individual."

BOOK REVIEWS

BOOK REVIEWS

Better High School English Through Tests and Drills, GARIBALDI M. LAPOLLA and KENNETH W. WRIGHT. New York: Noble and Noble, 1929, xii + 138 pages.

The authors have prepared a manual which combines the best objective type of teaching and testing with a flexibility uncommon in such works. The book might be used as a class-teaching instrument, but the authors apparently have endeavored, and with much success, to make the exercises of such a nature that they are adapted to serve as a rectifier of individual composition faults. A set of diagnostic tests is given to determine the individual weaknesses of the students, and drills and exercises are suggested to remedy the precise defects revealed by the tests. A great virtue of the book is that it concerns itself with the ninety-seven most common errors in English and does not bother with errors which are uncommon or highly technical.

JOHN CARR DUFF

Play the Game—The Book of Sport, edited by MITCHELL V. CHARNLEY. New York: The Viking Press, 1931, 344 pages.

Play the Game—The Book of Sport is a very valuable contribution to literature in the field of athletics. It is very attractively written with particular reference to the interests and vocabulary of the junior- and senior-high-school boy and girl. The men who have contributed are authorities.

I would consider it a very attractive and appropriate book to be placed in the hands of people, not only because of the very interesting way in which it presents athletics, but because standards of *keeping fit* and standards of *conduct* have been thoroughly considered as by-products of activities.

J.B.N.

The Library in the School, by LUCILE FARGO. Chicago: American Library Association, 1930, xxv + 453 pages.

This review is very tardy, but the delay has given me time to prove the value of the book in use as a textbook. It is the basic text in the course we offer for teachers, *The Library in the School* (Education 130.25). As such it has been invaluable. Miss Fargo writes with authority and with sympathy. Her own rich experience as a librarian and the research facilities of the A.L.A. were at her disposal in collecting the material for this

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book, written as a textbook for library school classes, but a valuable reference book for school teachers and administrators who would inform themselves about the place of the library in the organization of the modern school. Until such time as there shall be published a book on the school library as it is seen from the point of view of the classroom teacher and the principal, this excellent book for librarians will serve very well to present to the whole profession an adequate concept of the functions of the school library compatible with and inherent in the newer educational philosophy.

J.C.D.

Workbook in Vocations, PROCTOR, WRENN, and BENEFIELD. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931, viii + 135 pages.

This manual provides the teacher of vocational guidance with a comprehensive and stimulating set of exercises through which the pupil may inform himself of the advantages and disadvantages of the various vocational fields, and of his own fitness or lack of fitness for some of these fields. It begins with a series of searching exercises in self-analysis, continues with a set of studies of sixteen types of vocations, and concludes with an intensive study of one vocation to be selected by the pupil, and of the investment of time and money required for preparation for the vocation and for avocational and social efficiency. The manual should be an asset to any course in vocational guidance.

A.D.W.

The Teacher and Secondary School Administration, W. W. CARPENTER and JOHN RUFL. New York: Ginn and Company, 1931, xi + 460 pages.

A very timely discussion of certain generally overlooked activities of teachers that contribute very much to the full success of school education. The authors take up such factors as the responsibility of the teacher to the following school activities: opening of the school year, guidance of pupils, school records, the schedule, extracurricular activities, pupil control, public relations, relationships with parents and other teachers, professional growth, health and safety, and other activities.

The book is very readable and worth while. The references show an up-to-dateness that is rather unusual. Considerable attention is given to the human side of teacher relationships. The work

BOOK REVIEWS

is made much more valuable by the lists of practical principle-applying questions at the close of each chapter. On the other hand, it seems that the authors have not made provision for the stimulation and utilization of teacher initiative and creativeness, so much attention being given to set responsibilities.

E.R.G.

Motion Pictures and Lantern Slides for Elementary Visual Education, H. EMMETT BROWN and JOY BIRD. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications, 1931, vii + 105 pages.

This is an eminently valuable list of motion pictures, lantern slides, and strip films that are useful in elementary instruction in civics, science, geography, nature study, physical education, and stories for children. The authors have also introduced the lists by an enlightening discussion of the possible uses of the motion picture in education, and of the principles that should be used as guides in selecting films.

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